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MASSACHUSETTS TEACHER.

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THE DUTY OF SELF-CULTURE IN ITS RELATIONS TO TEACHING.

[A PRIZE ESSAY.]

PERSONAL improvement is the duty of every human being. By virtue of his very humanity, every individual of the race, stands under a sacred obligation to make as much of his mental and moral powers, as his position in life will permit. No one has a right to bury in a napkin any talent God has given him, any more than he has to pervert it to an unworthy use. This obvious general duty becomes specific and peculiar in its relation to many callings in life; and every one, we think, will decide that in regard to the business of teaching, it is a necessary and primary qualification. Its limits and methods, however, in that particular relation may, perhaps, give occasion for differences of opinion, where, indeed, any definite opinions at all are held on the subject.

Self-culture relates mainly to three things, *manners*, *mind*, *morals*. Attainments in all these directions are essential to the teacher's success. Failure in either of them is fatal. Nor can culture in one of these directions make up for its absence in any other. The instructor ought in a high sense to be a gentlemen, a scholar, and a Christian. Whoever else can afford to be other than all these, he cannot. And this, we apprehend, will be manifest if we consider the peculiar nature of his calling.

What, then, is the distinctive character of the teacher's vocation? A somewhat extended answer to this question will furnish forcible arguments for continued self-culture in all who engage in the work. We must think, that with all the advance recent years have witnessed in the views and methods of popu-

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lar education, even teachers themselves have hardly begun to have adequate notions in regard to the importance and inherent greatness of their work. We cannot say less of it than that it involves the highest responsibilities, and is, in the best sense, most honorable. The business of educating has to do with the soul rather than the body; it is, therefore, more concerned with eternity than with time. We do not,—for how can we,—sufficiently consider what it is to make an impression upon an immortal mind. We are dull in our apprehensions of the peculiar honor there is in fashioning a human spirit into forms of intellectual symmetry and grace, which it shall carry not only through the life that is, but onward into the ever lengthening ages of the life that is to be.

In all civilized countries the votaries of art have been held in honor. He who could make the canvas glow with imitated life, and he who could cut from the cold, dead marble, the almost living, breathing forms of animated existence, have both alike acquired lasting renown. Some of them lived far back in the past. Ages have passed away since the crumbling dust of their masterpieces has mingled with the ashes of their tombs; yet their names are held in deserved honor. But there is a coloring that outlasts all time, and eternity will forever add to its brightness. There is a sculpturing too, every line and angle and feature of which, will retain its exact form when the heavens and the earth shall be no more. No less a work than this is every teacher called to perform. Consciously or unconsciously, he is making impressions every day as lasting as the soul. What work, then, more responsible than this? What more honorable, provided it be well performed?

But the teacher need not pass the limits of the present life, to find evidence of the high character of his calling. It bears this character when judged by finite standards, and measured by the relations of time. Leaving wholly out of view those higher relations which connect it with a future existence, and regarding it simply as a business connected with the present life, we know of no nobler employment, none more worthy the efforts of the highest order of intellect. The teacher's forming hand is to be found all along the world's history, in the poets, the philosophers, the statesmen and the heroes of every age. Through these he has shaped the destinies of nations. Unrecognized, unknown perhaps, by the subjects of them, he has sent forth influences that have been felt far and wide. Nor has this obscurity rendered these influences any the less effective. It is a fact, not usually appreciated, that the true origin of great results lies often entirely back of their reputed causes. It is often forgotten that Alexander the Great was long the *pupil of Aristotle*, as were Alcibiades, Xenophon, and Plato, of

Socrates. "Who," it has been asked, "hears the name of Caius Laelius? And yet Scipio, the conqueror of Hannibal, speaks of himself as but executing the designs of that philosopher." Is it, then, too much to say that had there been no Laelius, there would have been no immortal Scipio, and the great Carthaginian might not have found a conqueror? The greatest of Roman orators, whose fame yet sends its steady light over the abyss of ages, declares that Publius Nigidius, a name that, but for this circumstance, we should hardly have known, was the author of his noblest deeds. And if Cicero could make this confession, how many more of inferior genius could make similar acknowledgments with yet greater propriety? Indeed, however narrow our observation may have been, instances must have come to our knowledge of great power proceeding from those who dwelt in obscurity, even as the earth is heaved, and tossed and cleft asunder, by invisible forces of which we know almost nothing.

Of this hidden power of the teacher for good, — and, let it be remembered, it may be for evil likewise, — we give a single illustration. We once knew a teacher who, in the judgment of those best acquainted with him, possessed the rarest intellectual powers, which he had cultivated with long and varied discipline. For him it was a pastime to read in the mother tongue of Plato and Plutarch, the deep philosophy of the one, and the lofty morality of the other. There is hardly any field of knowledge to which he was a stranger. He seemed to be at home on the classic page, among the higher mathematical studies, or while engaged in unfolding those subtle distinctions which underlie that sublimest of all sciences, — the science of the human soul. And no mind truly awake could listen long to his "wide and large discourse of reason," and not feel something of that awe-inspiring reverence, which the presence of the highest forms of intellectual greatness seldom fails to awaken. And yet he was known comparatively to but few. His personal influence over the world at large was but small. The masses were alike ignorant of his worth and his greatness. With a modesty equal to his unusual attainments, he shrank from display; and having no desire of authorship, and passing away from us in the meridian of his days, but few of the results of his profound investigations will go down to posterity on the printed page. But will he have lived in vain? Far otherwise; for deep in hundreds of young and noble hearts, made yet nobler by his sublime teachings, were treasured up the living thoughts his "winged words" bore thither, and there will they be cherished in undying remembrance. Love for Truth and Honor and Duty was inspired in minds that are to influence men from high places of authority and trust; from

the pulpit, the bar and the halls of legislation. Through his pupils will his influence be transmitted to other minds, and thus has he set in motion a tide of healthful agencies that will ebb and flow to the end of time. Not far from the quiet waters of a New England lake, stands a massive granite shaft erected to his memory by his loving pupils. It bears no flaunting eulogy upon its tablets. It rises in solid yet simple grandeur, an apt symbol of his life, whose name, with the day of his birth and of his death only, is cut in relief upon the solid stone. As we stood, not many months ago, beside that monument, with sentiments akin to those of the pilgrim who has reached some long-sought distant shrine, we could but feel how fitly it illustrated the enduring influence of him whose ashes are reposing at its base.

Let it not be supposed that the importance or the responsibilities of the teacher's calling are confined to the higher walks of the profession; or that they belong exclusively to those chiefly engaged in finishing the work. The instructor, at every stage of his business, is concerned with intellectual and moral development; and we are yet to be informed that the earliest part of this business is fraught with less important consequences than that of any later period. Of how little value is elegance of finish, or beauty of exterior ornament, to that edifice, whose foundation was laid at first in the treacherous sand! Or, to use a better analogy, of what avail is any effort to remove an unsightly crook in the sturdy tree, which commenced while yet the tree was a tender shrub? We know not how soon the infant soul begins to receive from the world without its shapings and tendencies. But we do know, that after this time has arrived, its earliest are its most impressible periods. It is, then, that little causes, as we call them, produce great results. A word, a look, a tone, a tear, or a smile, every one does its work. Sunny and joyous tempers have sprung into life under the genial influence of a constantly cheerful countenance and voice. At this period too, harsh and irritable dispositions are bred amid strife, in an atmosphere of moroseness and ill humor. Thus early does the die give the enduring stamp. A very few years suffice to give full vigor to those elements which expand into a Cowper or a Byron; a Washington or a Bonaparte. "The boy is father of the man," says a poet; and most true it is, that the human character receives its form in childhood. Let no one, then, touch the young soul, that wondrous birth of heaven, with a careless or unpractised hand. Whoso does this does it at his peril.

Thus, in whatever view we regard the teacher's vocation, whether in its relations to this or the future life; in its connection with the earlier or later periods of intellectual develop-

ment; in its immediate results upon the pupil, or its more remote effects, ever going forth from him as a central source; in each and all these views, we find abundant evidence of its peculiar excellence and responsibility as a calling. The teacher is thus seen to be *a fashioner of human souls, moulding them measurably, into his own likeness.*

This character of his work indicates, at once, what that of the instructor should be. He owes it most sacredly to his noble employment, that he be no intellectual sluggard. Unrefined manners, an uncultivated mind, or an easy conscience, have no business here. They are not the fitting appointments for this most elevated work. The teacher has chosen an office most responsible and most honorable. Let him do it honor, then, by his own manly character and his faithful labors. But this he will fail to do, unless he is ever diligent in work of self-improvement.

We have said that self-culture has reference to external habits, the mind, and the heart. Some more specific consideration of each of these will be pertinent to the subject.

If the foregoing views are correct, the external manners of the teacher are not of minor consequence. Pupils continually copy the teacher, and usually go farther than he, if he is addicted to coarseness of any kind. If they are well bred at home, they will probably disrespect him; if not, they will most likely become confirmed in their own rudeness by his example. Some regard for dress, even, is most important. We are, we confess, no great admirers of those who are careless in this respect; and still less do we respect those who affect oddity or indifference here. We do not think we could even sympathize with a modern Diogenes. While we should despise a fop, we should feel an almost equal degree of disgust with one who purposely or otherwise should play the philosopher in rags. And worse than any where else is this in the teacher. He needs to be scrupulous in regard to his person, his dress, and his manners, as well as in his pronunciation and his use of language. Fifty, a hundred, and perhaps more pupils are accustomed to see him some hours every day. They become familiar with all his habits, even the most minute. If he is careless in his dress, eccentric in his manners, coarse, low or worse in his words, some of his pupils, it is to be hoped, would *appreciate* such qualifications; but a greater number probably would become his copyists. We shall not be understood as advocating finical exactness; an undue preciseness which is among the worst species of affectation, and not, if our recollection serves us, entirely unknown to the profession. But we would express most decidedly the belief, that no one destitute of refinement and courtesy, whatever else he may have, is fit

to be a teacher. The school-room should be a place, the very atmosphere of which is pervaded with the spirit of true politeness.

Progressive intellectual culture is, if possible, yet more essential to the true teacher. He must always be a learner. To be willing to stand still here is to be willing to go backward. And yet the temptation to stand still is as great as the yielding to it is fatal. This may be seen at a glance. The teacher spends hours every day in immediate mental contact with those who are perhaps greatly his inferiors in age and knowledge. He is by his position constantly a superior. This continued relation, and the consequent feeling which must accompany it, tend to work out at length an overbearing spirit, conceited and pedantic. Hence has sprung that peculiar genius, born of Ignorance and Conceit, known in all times as the genuine pedagogue, and deservedly the butt of ridicule and satire from the time of Solomon downward. We account for the odium that falls upon his luckless head, on the principle that the caricature of anything is disagreeable, just in proportion as the thing caricatured is really excellent and noble. The pedant is the true teacher in caricature; hence he becomes the object of unmitigated disgust.

There is, we say, in teaching, such a tendency. This tendency brings with it no necessity, however. It can be easily resisted. To do this successfully the teacher must grow intellectually; and this growth implies an ever-widening sphere of knowledge. A higher standard of education, indeed, is now demanded by public opinion, in common school teachers, than formerly. The time has happily gone by when the candidate would answer, provided, by dint of digging, he could keep in advance of his classes. A considerable degree of culture is now required—we hope the demand will be greatly increased—in every one who takes charge of a school of any kind. And we doubt not that a teacher may, for a time, be tolerably useful, even if his education is chiefly limited to the studies he has occasion to teach. But if he stop long here; if he make the bare demands of the school-room the limit of his attainments, his mind will contract, his self-conceit dilate, and pedantry will grow thriftily on its proper soil. Now, in order to forestall such a result, the teacher needs some constant intellectual employment, calculated to enlarge and discipline his mental powers. In deciding what this employment shall be, every one, of course, would consult his own preferences. There are, however, many branches of knowledge essential to the highest usefulness of the teacher, and also in themselves most valuable acquisitions, which are not usually required as qualifications in a large class of instructors. A knowledge of Intellectual Phi-

losophy, for example, is not required by Committees and school laws, in order to teach primary and grammar schools. And yet, if the brief views of teaching we have given are near the truth, how unfit is any one to teach even such school, who is ignorant of the powers of the mind and the laws of its action. As unfit, in truth, as he to build a temple, who is ignorant of the first rudiments of architecture.

Highly useful, also, to the teacher, is some knowledge of the classical languages and literature. Our own vernacular, as all know, is largely indebted to those wonderful languages; and whoever would understand the full power of those words we have thus borrowed, must learn them in their birth-place and among their kindred. And as to studying those old philosophers, poets, moralists and historians through translations, it is, for the most part, like looking at the finest landscape in the dim twilight, so that he was not very far from the truth who said there really never were but two translations — those of Enoch and Elijah. Every student, moreover, knows how thoroughly and extensively classical allusions are woven into the very texture of the finest English literature. We may now regret this, perhaps, but it will make the fact no otherwise than it is. The great poem of the language is literally full of allusions to the old histories and mythologies. Hence the value of some attainments in this direction to every teacher. And then there is a knowledge of history, far more extended than the school books give, always useful to the instructor. For he is especially concerned to know the great science of man; and this must be studied mainly in language and history. These studies, most appropriately termed the Humanities in the older schools, while they are useful to all, are, on many accounts, especially advantageous in the business of teaching. In fine, that bond of brotherhood, so aptly termed by Cicero, *quoddam cummune vinculum*, which runs through and binds together all the various branches of science, makes them mutually illustrate each other; so that he who undertakes to teach any one of them will find his capability to do so increased, almost in exact proportion to the extent of his knowledge among the rest. Pushing his researches thus into one and another of the departments of knowledge, the teacher will accomplish two most important results. He will discharge a debt which he owes his noble calling, and cultivate himself as a man. He will thus escape that narrowness of thought and view which so often characterizes the pedantic schoolmaster, and which satirists have so often used to the discredit of his profession, and will elevate himself and honor his calling.

We are not unaware that we may be met here with the difficulty that the time allotted to many teachers, for their own cultivation

in reading and study, is small. It may be said that the greater portion of each day must be given to the school, and that the remainder is needed for physical exercise and social intercourse. We admit the difficulty to some extent; still, judging from what has been done, we are convinced that a proper and systematic arrangement, in regard to time, will give considerable opportunity for so desirable an object. Instances are not wanting of teachers of the very highest usefulness, making large literary attainments. Difficult languages have been learned and abstruse sciences acquired. We have in our mind at this moment a distinguished professor who, years ago, while engaged six hours each day in teaching boys, began the study of Hebrew, and read the Old Testament through several times in that language. Honored female teachers, too, some of whose names are familiar to us as household words, might be named, who have cultivated most assiduously their own minds while actively engaged in the duties of their chosen employment. Almost all of us know the great acquisitions of Dr. Arnold, who, while engaged many hours every day in teaching, found leisure time in which, both as student and author, he gained high and worthy distinction in the republic of letters. Such examples show us what may be done by a careful economy of time and rigid adherence to system. They show us, too, that the business of instruction does not necessarily cramp the mental energies, nor prevent their growth; and that while one is a teacher, he may also become a man of taste and letters. In fact, we think it both the duty and the privilege of every teacher to be such; and unless we greatly mistake, it will be found true on careful examination, that those teachers who are doing the most for their own mental improvement, are, as a general rule, the most useful to their pupils.

That *moral culture*, also, is essential to every teacher, hardly needs an argument. The matter is so self-evident as to require little or no illustration. In our own State, where from the very beginning the cultivation of the heart in all schools has been supposed, as a matter of course, to take precedence of every other; and where the school laws not only recognize religion as the highest and noblest possession possible to the mind, but also enjoin it upon the teacher to inculcate piety and Christian morals, love to God, and love to man, — here, we say, it is too obvious almost for remark that the teacher should possess high moral and religious principle. "The business of a schoolmaster," said Dr. Arnold, "no less than that of a parish minister, is the cure of souls." This may be stating the matter strongly. But true it is, that he must have clean hands and a pure heart, who aspires to this sacred calling. And this moral element should never be suffered to lose anything of its vitality or force. *It should* receive the most assiduous cultivation. There should

be in the educator a life and a growth of all good affections. To all who fall short of this, and bring strange fire to this consecrated altar, the words of the Sybil to the companions of Æneas are a fitting admonition, *Procul, o, procul este, profani.*

We have briefly seen what teaching *is*, and what it *requires*. It is surely matter of pleasant reflection that teachers in our midst are coming every year better to understand the true character of their calling, and the relations they sustain to it. This state of things gives promise of a time not distant, when their ranks shall be filled with highly cultivated men and women, and the name of teacher shall be suggestive only of taste, refinement and all good culture. Every teacher is interested in such a result. Let each do his part, and the work will speedily be accomplished.

THE RELATIONS OF TEACHER AND PUPIL.

BY ——— ———.

An important means of promoting the usefulness of common schools is *diffusion of a correct knowledge and sense of the relations of teacher and pupil.* From the want of just and steady principles respecting these relations, the benefit of schools is often much abridged. Difficulties not unfrequently arise in school districts, and in schools themselves, from a want of definite views on the part of parents and teachers respecting the legal rights, powers, and duties of the latter. Knowledge of the extent and limitation of his authority is hid from his eyes. Access to it is exceedingly difficult. It is not open to him in the statute book, to which his approach would be comparatively easy. It lies in fragments scattered up and down in a wilderness of judicial decisions spread through different States, for though the decisions of courts in other States are not of themselves valid here, there is a wise respect paid to them in our own courts, and a cautious hesitation to come into conflict with them. They have the authority of revered wisdom if not of positive law. The Committee, too, are sometimes embarrassed in the discharge of their duty. They find it extremely difficult to ascertain the limits of either the teacher's authority or their own. They cannot always tell whether they are over or within the line of their duty when the intervention of their authority is called for by the earnest complaint of parents and by the insubordination of individual or confederate scholars. The inconvenience of this vagueness is more extensively felt than complained of. Perhaps the autho-

rity of the teacher is too general in its nature to be confined within bounds that shall exactly comprehend the various contingencies that may happen. If we should venture to say that the occasion for the use of authority must determine its limits, there might still be a wide diversity of opinion as to what should constitute an occasion for its use; and if all should agree as to the call for its exercise, they might differ widely as to the measure and the mode of it. As there is great need of discretion in the teacher, there is also much need that discretion be allowed to him. His is an approximation to parental government, and, so far as the one approaches the other, so far should a similar discretion be conceded. Regarding then the teacher as, to a considerable extent and for the time being, in the place of the parent, we think that, as in the one case, so in the other, the law will not interfere with the exercise of authority, except where the bounds of reason are clearly transgressed, and the exercise of it works palpable injury to the subject of it, and tends thereby to make inroads on the social welfare. In doubtful cases public justice will lean to the teacher rather than to the pupil, as it presumes the discretion of the parent till the proof plainly forbids such presumption.

Unless we widely err, the due authority of teachers has, in many instances, been gradually frittered away, and the art of coaxing has been required instead of discreet *government.* In schools of from forty to a hundred scholars, where the number is nearly equalled by the variety, a morbid sentiment relies for subordination on the power of persuasion alone. Those who are governed nowhere else, and nowhere else persuaded, are expected to be held under a salutary restraint by the gentle sway of inviting motives. If we may suppose cases where this lenient power is strong enough to curb the wayward and subdue the refractory, we think it must be in cases where rare skill is applied to select specimens of human nature. We urge nothing against the power of persuasion within its reasonable limits, and we could wish that these limits were much wider than they are, as they doubtless would be with improved domestic education. Early and steady respect to authority at home, prepares the way for easy government in school, and whilst it is a perpetual blessing to the child, it is a present comfort to the parent and a service done to the public. Not till an even-handed authority creates the power of persuasion at home, may we expect its triumph abroad. Whatever value, then, we put upon its gentle influence, we think that, at least in schools, it is not good for it to be alone. Law, not a name, but a power, must have a known existence, and if this knowledge cannot be communicated by its letter, it should be acquired by a sense of its wholesome *penalties. There* are those so headstrong from long indulgence

and from their habits of early domination, that to bring them to their duty in school, and to keep them from marring their own and others' good, by the gentle power of motives, would be as unreasonable an expectation as that of subduing the wild colt of the prairie without a thong or a bridle. To say that such should at once be turned out of school, is to say that they shall not have the very benefit which all need, and they more than others, the benefit of a well-governed school, to whose government their submission might be a salutary novelty. To expel a pupil from school should be done only by a cautious decision and as an ultimate resort. To inflict upon him this disgrace, and to deprive him of the advantages of education is, in some sense, to punish the community. Such a result may sometimes be unavoidable, but in most cases it may be shunned by the prevalence of a quick and strong sense, within the District, of the importance of a firm and well-sustained government in the school, and by leaving mainly to the discretion of him, who is held responsible for the success of the school he teaches, to find where persuasion can, and coercion must, do its work.

We are unwilling to dismiss this part of our subject, without pressing further the importance of a correct general sentiment respecting schools, both public and private, and of every grade. We think that much of the inefficiency of schools is occasioned by an unintentional and indirect interference of parents with the appropriate authority and influence of the teacher. It is an interference that works no less effectually because its operation is indiscreet and unsuspected. We refer to a home-bred influence that springs up by the fireside and around the table. It drops from the parent's lips on the heart of his child, to be carried into the gatherings of children in the neighborhood, and thence, with accumulated power into the school, there to injure, if not to frustrate, the best endeavors of otherwise competent and useful teachers. It takes the place of a salutary influence that might easily be exerted by the judicious and decided coöperation of parents while their children are under the domestic roof. The indulgence of parental fondness humors the waywardness of the child, lends a willing and partial ear to his unfounded complaint against the teacher, entertains unjust suspicions of the latter's intellectual attainments, and discretion in government. Instead of placing the full weight of parental authority in the hands of the teacher, it takes away from those hands much of the authority which the deliberate and settled wisdom of the State has placed in them. We therefore respectfully, but with an earnest voice, call upon parents, by their tender and sacred regard to the best interests of their children, and by their enlightened respect to the general good, to refrain

carefully from weakening the government and diminishing the usefulness of the teacher by hasty or ill-founded distrust of his competency or faithfulness, and to consider that, in the regulations of his school, and in his judgment of the character and conduct, the merit or demerit, of the scholar while under his eye, he has advantages for discernment which can be possessed by no one else; and to bear in mind that, as a general fact, the teacher feels his responsibility more deeply and constantly than others feel it for him, and that his reputation and disposition stimulate him to put forth his best exertions for the useful advancement of the school. Let them not forget that, while the children are in school, parental authority is passed away into other hands, and that neither the parent nor the scholar should entertain the thought that any remnant of domestic power may infringe on the supremacy of the teacher, whilst standing where the public will has placed him.

THE PROPER CHARACTER OF SCHOOL BOOKS.

BY ——— ———.

We deem this a subject of no small importance. Books which are to be used in common schools for teaching the elements of Grammar, Geography and Arithmetic, should be *simple* and *clear*, that the youthful mind may comprehend them without discouragement to diligence; *correct*, that they may not mislead it; and *systematic*, that it may not only acquire knowledge, but that it may, in a due degree, be disciplined and led on by such gradations as shall invigorate the mind, and allure it to make further progress when it shall be left to its own unassisted efforts. The improvement which has been made, within a few years, in books for teaching these branches of education, is a pledge that little will be wanting to meet the just demands of public schools.

There has been much diversity of opinion respecting *the character of books suitable to be used in the exercise of reading.* Books which are read much in schools, as books for reading should be, have no small influence in forming the taste and the sentiments of those who use them. The books for the more advanced pupil being used both for reading and grammatical analysis, he acquires a familiarity with them; their sentiments, and often their language, are engraven on the memory; even that which seems to be heedlessly read over in childhood, is, *by the memory's* aid, the subject of careful thought in future

years; and in very many instances, becomes part of the individual's intellectual treasure and moral character, and of the public weal or woe. We are therefore of opinion, without passing censure on the books now in use, that essential public service is done by any improvement in books of this class, and that such books should be models of purity in language, simplicity, clearness, grace and vigor in expression, and, above all, fitted to inculcate and commend ennobling sentiments of private and social virtue, of human rights, both personal and public, of patriotism, of philanthropy, — in short, of duty to God and man.

We deem the art itself of reading to be, in no small degree, dependent on the book that is read, on the structure of its sentences, on the simple grace of its diction, on the vivacity and energy of its expression, on the thoughts which inspire its words, on that combination of literary and moral qualities which quickens the intellect and kindles the heart. Such a book too, in many instances, originates a taste for intellectual improvement, the effect of which is seen in the whole progress of life. A book that should in these respects be a model would be an invaluable treasure to public schools. An approximation to such a model, will be most likely to be made by leaving the door wide open to that competition which is so ready to spy out and to accommodate public wants. A State monopoly of this business would be less quick-sighted than private enterprise quickened by personal interest. Its tendency would be to discourage private effort, and the effect would be that less of mind would be occupied by the subject. Whatever power may safely and conveniently be used by Towns, should never pass into larger hands. It is a principle of liberty, which should be cherished in every thing, that the more minutely power can be divided with safety and convenience, the more widely should it be distributed. As the Towns are competent to select books for their schools, let them do it, and not the State.

A MODEL TEACHER.

The following extract from a letter just received, contains a good description of a class of teachers which is in great demand. Similar applications are by no means rare.

"We want to find a superior female teacher for our High School — one accomplished, talented, 'apt to teach,' commanding the respect and securing the love of pupils, competent to teach Algebra, Geometry, Latin, French, and any of the common branches of study,— one who will *lead* and not *follow*, — who will *be a model for* young ladies."

REMARKS ON THE ANGLO-SAXON LANGUAGE.

No. I.

It is well known, as an isolated fact, that a large portion, about five-eighths, of the words of the English language, are derived from the Anglo-Saxon. But, although this fact shows the great importance of the Anglo-Saxon language in its relation to our native tongue, there are few who have even superficially examined it with a view to ascertain more definitely the nature of its influence, and to enjoy the advantage of the light afforded by a more intimate acquaintance with it, not only in ascertaining the derivation of words, but in the cultivation of an idiomatic, expressive, and yet simple, style, and in tracing its influence upon the grammatical inflections and the syntactical construction of the English language. Yet all these are points of interest to every educated man, and the last is of especial importance to the Teacher, whose duty it is to instruct the young in the principles of their native language. Not only do our words in most common use, our peculiar idioms and familiar expressions come from the Anglo-Saxon, but all our grammatical inflections, however modified by the subsequent influence of other languages, acknowledge their source in it.

I propose, in a series of articles which I hope to render concise and few in number, to exhibit the principal characteristics of the grammar of the Anglo-Saxon language, with occasional remarks upon its points of agreement with, and difference from, the English.

A few preliminary historical remarks, condensed from the Introduction to Klipstein's "Analecta Anglo-Saxonica," containing a brief account of the origin of the Anglo-Saxon, and its subsequent modifications, may not be uninteresting. The Anglo-Saxons were a branch of the Teutonic race, whose origin has been traced to Northern India, at the base of the Himmaleh mountains. Hence the affinities of the English with the Sanscrit, and other Eastern tongues. The Teutones first appeared in Europe about seven hundred years before the Christian era, and speedily overran a great part of it. The Saxons first appear as a distinct people, inhabiting Denmark and the adjacent isles of the Baltic together with the Angles, a tribe of kindred origin. The latter have given a name to a part of the island of Great Britain; and the combination of the two names, the appellation by which their language is known. Though it is to be remarked that this term does not exist in the language itself, but was applied by foreign writers. The Saxons and Angles, finding themselves pressed by the Danes, *who invaded them* from the North, resolved to seek new homes,

and in the fifth century, under the command of Hengist and Horsa, effected a landing in Britain. They were received with joy by the Britons, who desired their assistance in repelling the attacks of the Scots and Picts from Ireland and Scotland. But having accomplished this, they were unwilling to leave the island, and a fiercely contested war of the races ensued, until the native Britons were not only conquered, but exterminated. Hardly a trace of their language, laws, or lineage, remained. Their fate was strikingly similar to that of the American Indians. The Anglo-Saxons were Pagans. Christianity was introduced into Britain in the seventh century. From this period may be dated the rise of their written literature. The language continued in its pure state until its purity was in some way affected by the irruptions of the Danes, who obtained a foothold, more or less permanent, from the eighth to the tenth centuries. They were several times defeated by King Alfred the Great, himself one of the first Anglo-Saxon writers. A second change of the language was effected, upon the Conquest of England by William of Normandy, in the eleventh century, by the intermixture of the Norman-French. Although the Normans held but comparatively little intercourse with the conquered people, whom they considered as an inferior and serf-like race, in the course of two hundred years a language compounded of the two was formed, known as the old English. Finally, the Latin element was introduced, with small additions from the Greek and other languages, and the result was the English language; — a heterogeneous compound, but not surpassed for copiousness and power of expression. Its composition is stated to be in the proportion of about five-eighths Anglo-Saxon, three-sixteenths Latin, one-eighth Greek, and the remainder a compound of French, Spanish, and other tongues.

Y. Y.

Public Schools.—"We regard them as, under God, the affluent source of New England's enterprise and skill, her quiet and thrift, her safety at home, and her honor abroad. They are the check and the balance of power; the poor man's treasure and the rich man's bond. They are the eyes of liberty, and the hands of law, as they are both the root and the offspring of religion. They were devised by a foresight that reaches every interest of man: they were established by a sacrifice that proves the depth of principle which decreed their being; and they have been guarded, from age to age, by the sleepless vigils of wisdom and goodness. Be it ours, then, to cherish, to improve and to transmit them as a holy trust bearing in its hands the record of past, and the pledge of future good."

MASSACHUSETTS TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

THE Eighth Annual Session of this Association was held in New Bedford, Monday and Tuesday, the 23d and 24th of November, 1852.

MONDAY EVENING.

The meeting was opened by prayer from Rev. Mr. Thomas, of New Bedford, after which the President, William H. Wells, Esq., of Newburyport, congratulated the Association upon the favorable auspices under which they had met, and the kindness and attention which had been shown them by the citizens of New Bedford. He referred to the good which the Association was doing in the cause, and alluded to the "Massachusetts Teacher," and the publication of the proceedings and lectures of the Association, as evidences that a good work was being accomplished. Journals similar to the "Teacher" had been, or would soon be, published in many other States of the Union. Mr. Wells spoke of his recent tour in the West. The cause was rapidly progressing in that part of the country. The schools in St. Louis, Chicago, and many other places that he had visited, were in a most flourishing condition. Mr. Wyman's School in St. Louis was not surpassed by similar institutions in New England. We must labor zealously in the cause, or our western brethren would lead us. He hoped to receive letters from the West, during the session, which would give valuable information fresh from the scene of action, and which he would read. We occupied an interesting point in the history of Education; at first, we had rushed on with impetuosity, afterwards we had paused for reflection. It would be strange if some errors had not been committed. We were now making healthy progress, and were gathering strength for greater results.

Teachers should not complain that they are not appreciated; this was not true. Never was there a time when we were held in so high estimation. There was more of the *esprit de corps* among teachers than in any other profession; we were better united than any other body of men. Everywhere had the principle of association among teachers extended, and this was leading to the most satisfactory results. Whilst we were appreciated by the public, we should not complain, but should endeavor to show ourselves worthy of such estimation.

After the reading of the Journal by the Secretary, a committee of nine was appointed by the chair to nominate officers for the ensuing year, as follows:—Messrs. Greenleaf of Bradford, Mansfield of Cambridge, Blake of West Tisbury, Tenney of

Pittsfield, Emerson of New Bedford, Kneeland of Dorchester, Hammond of Monson, Hunt of Plymouth, and Allen of Boston.

A Lecture was then delivered by Mr. Goldthwaite, of Westfield, on "Permanent Results in Teaching." [The Lectures will all be published in the "Transactions." We will, therefore, not attempt a report of them.]

The motion to amend the second article of the Constitution, so that any practical teacher of the State may become a member of the Association, offered at the last meeting by Rev. Mr. Peirce, of Waltham, was taken from the table, and after a long discussion, Messrs. Peirce, Reed and Kneeland, in the affirmative, and Messrs. Vail, Thayer, Poor, Greenleaf and Northend, in the negative, was decided in the negative by a large majority. The Association then adjourned to meet at 9 o'clock on Tuesday.

SESSION OF TUESDAY.

Mr. Peirce, of Waltham, gave notice that at the next Annual Meeting he should move to strike the word "male" from the second article of the Constitution, and also to amend the title of the Association by adding thereto the word "male."

The subject of Membership was introduced by Mr. Joshua Bates, Jr., of Boston, who offered the following resolution, which was discussed and adopted, to wit:—Any individual who has once been a member of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association shall be considered as such after leaving the business of teaching, until he shall obtain a regular discharge.

Mr. Greenleaf reported for the Committee on Nominations, and was instructed to report in print.

The Report of the Treasurer was read, and referred to a Committee of three, consisting of Messrs. Hammond, Philbrick, and Parish.

A Committee of fourteen, one from each County, was appointed to take the names of teachers attending the meeting, with the view of publishing them in the "Massachusetts Teacher."

At 10 o'clock, the orders of the day were taken up. Mr. Blake of West Tisbury, Chairman of the Committee appointed at the last meeting to take into consideration the subject of Phonetics, reported favorably in their behalf, and the report was read. [See page 25.] The following resolution was offered for consideration:

Resolved, That School Committees be recommended to introduce the new plan of instruction only into schools under the charge of teachers willing to use it.

Mr. Hammond, of Monson, by request, read a minority report, [to be published in a future number.] After remarks by Mr.

Sherwin, of Boston, in favor of testing Phonetics in our schools, the reports, with the resolution, were laid on the table, and the orders of the day were proceeded with.

The Committee on Prize Essays submitted the following report, which was adopted:

REPORT.

The whole number of Essays offered is twenty: sixteen by ladies, on "Moral and Religious Instruction in Schools," and four, by gentlemen, on "The Self-Improvement of Teachers."

One of the former class being sent in after the 1st of November, was thought, on that account, to be void of all claim to consideration.

In estimating the relative value of these Essays, the Committee esteemed it their duty to take into consideration, not only the sentiments, motives, and arguments, presented in the several contributions, but also the literary merits or defects by which each might, in any degree, be characterized. Hence, the arrangement of the matter, the choice and collocation of the words and phrases, and other requisites of a good style, as well as the essential elements of all tolerable composition, correct grammar, orthography, and punctuation, have been regarded as subjects of criticism. Nor is illegible penmanship to be considered as any special recommendation of a literary production.

Taking all these circumstances into view, the Committee are highly gratified with the excellence of a considerable number of the Essays. In their opinion, these contributions, for the most part, reflect honor upon the authors, and demonstrate the good judgment of the Association in stimulating teachers to write. Indeed the preparation of these Essays must have been highly beneficial, even to the most unsuccessful of the writers. It is gratifying, therefore, that so many have been offered this year, and it is hoped that even a greater number will be annually presented in future.

Your Committee found little difficulty in agreeing that three of the contributions offered by ladies, have claims superior to those of the others; but to make a selection from those three occasioned no inconsiderable embarrassment. They endeavored, however, to come to an honest and correct decision, and have assigned the prize to Essay No. 12, by Miss Margaret Bliss, of Springfield.

The Essays contributed by gentlemen, are all of a highly creditable character, and it is a matter of regret that there was not a greater number presented. Let not teachers of our sex fail, in future, to do their full share of work in this department of usefulness. The Essay marked D, by Mr. M. P. Case, *of Newburyport*, is considered as entitled to the prize.

As many of the Essays contain excellent matter for publication, it is suggested, that, unless they should be called for by the authors, they be left at the disposal of the Board of Editors of the Massachusetts Teacher.

All which is respectfully submitted.

THOMAS SHERWIN, }
CHAS. J. CAPEN, } Committee on Prize Essays.
JONA. TENNEY, }

New Bedford, Nov. 23, 1852.

Mr. Stearns, of Boston, requested leave in behalf of the Lawrence Association of boys, to present to the Massachusetts Teachers' Association, for gratuitous distribution, some copies of a lecture on the use of tobacco. The request was granted with applause, and a vote of thanks, on motion of Mr. Peirce, of Waltham, was presented in response.

On motion of Mr. Bates, a Committee of five was appointed to take into consideration the claims of gentlemen, who, in past years, had made pecuniary sacrifices in aid of the "Massachusetts Teacher," and report at the next meeting; and Messrs. Reed of Roxbury, Bates, Sherwin, and Thayer of Boston, and King of Lynn, were appointed.

Nathan Bishop, Esq., Superintendent of Schools in Boston, was elected an honorary member of the Association.

On motion of Mr. Peirce, a Committee of five was appointed to report at the next meeting on revising the Constitution, and to propose amendments for that object, and also a set of special rules; and Messrs. Peirce of Waltham, Vail of Salem, and Bates, Thayer, and Stearns of Boston, were appointed.

Messrs. Philbrick and Thayer of Boston, Smith of Cambridge, Blake of Tisbury, and Metcalf of Worcester, were appointed a committee to organize a Board of Editors for the "Massachusetts Teacher," for 1853.

Mr. M. P. Case, by invitation, then read his Prize Essay, and the Association adjourned to quarter of 2 o'clock.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Dr. Stone submitted a proposition from the Managers of Madame Alboni's Concert, to be held in New Bedford in the evening, offering certain facilities for the same. Thanks for the compliment were expressed, and the proposition was laid on the table.

Mr. Hammond, from the Auditing Committee, reported in their behalf on the Finances.

Mr. Tenney of Pittsfield submitted the following resolution, which was referred to the Committee on the Constitution :—

Resolved, That Art. II of the Constitution of this Associa-

tion, defining the conditions of Membership, shall be so construed as to include any person who, having acknowledged and practised teaching as the great avocation of his life for, at least, five consecutive years,—has retired only in consequence of age, infirmity, or like necessity, and has entered upon no business, except one having direct connection with the advancement of the cause of popular education in the Teacher's special charge.

The subject of Phonetics was taken from the table on motion of Dr. Stone of Boston, and the meeting was addressed thereon by Messrs. Smolley, Stone, Thayer, Hammond, Cobb, Philbrick and Vail. The subject was then laid on the table.

On motion of Mr. Pennell, the Essay of Miss Bliss, of Springfield, was read by Mr. Sherwin, Chairman of the Committee on Prize Essays.

After which, Mr. J. G. Hoyt, of Exeter, [N. H.,] delivered a lecture on "The Indications of Progress in Popular Education," and the Association adjourned to meet at half-past 6 o'clock.

EVENING SESSION.

The President read letters from Dr. Lord, of Columbus, Ohio, and Mr. Tice, of St. Louis, giving information in regard to the progress of education in the West.

Voted, That a copy of the "Transactions" be sent to each of those gentlemen, with the thanks of the Association.

Voted, That the Board of Editors be instructed to continue the publication of the "Transactions," if it be considered expedient.

The two Reports on Phonetics were refefred to the Board of Editors for 1853.

The Board of Directors were instructed to petition the next Legislature for further pecuniary aid, and for an act of incorporation; also to provide a seal for the Association, and furnish certificates of membership; also, if they shall deem it expedient, to offer, during the ensuing year, prizes for Essays, and make all arrangements for the same.

The Committee appointed to publish the proceedings and Lectures of the Association, were instructed to report to the Board of Directors.

It was Voted, That a copy of the "Transactions" be presented to each of the gentlemen whose lectures were therein contained, and also that one be presented to the State Library.

Voted, That the next meeting of the Association commence at 2 o'clock P. M., on the Monday next preceding the annual Thanksgiving, with the view of prolonging the time of the session.

The following gentlemen were chosen as officers for the ensuing year:

William H. Wells, of Newburyport, *President.*

Benjamin Greenleaf, of Bradford; Rufus Putnam, of Salem; D. S. Rowe, of Westfield; Geo. A. Walton, of Lawrence; Geo. Newcomb, of Quincy; Caleb Emery, of Boston; Eben S. Stearns, of West Newton; C. C. Chase, of Lowell; Samuel W. King, of Lynn; D. B. Hagar, of West Roxbury; F. N. Blake, of West Tisbury; N. Tillinghast, of Bridgewater; Jonathan Tenney, of Pittsfield; John F. Emerson, of New Bedford, *Vice Presidents.*

Elbridge Smith, of Cambridge, *Corresponding Secretary.*

Charles J. Capen, of Dedham, *Recording Secretary.*

Josiah A. Stearns, of Boston, *Treasurer.*

Charles Northend, of Salem; Daniel Mansfield, of Cambridge; J. P. Cowles, of Ipswich; Calvin S. Pennell, of Lawrence; John Batchelder, of Lynn; Ebenezer Hervey, of New Bedford; Levi Reed, of Roxbury; George Allen, Jr., of Boston; James M. Lassell, of Cambridge; J. D. Philbrick, of Boston; A. M. Gay, of Charlestown; John Kneeland, of Dorchester, *Counsellors.*

The subject of Phonetics was then taken from the table, and the discussion was continued by Messrs Sherwin, of Boston, and Rowe, of Westfield, and concluded by passing the Resolution offered by the Committee.

Professor Felton, of Harvard University, then delivered a Lecture upon "The English Language as a Branch of Study in our Common Schools."

Mr Gardner, of Nantucket, after a grateful acknowledgment for the appropriate and beautiful tribute paid by the lecturer to the memory of Webster, spoke eloquently upon the feelings and impulses which the death of the great statesman had excited. Mr. Stearns, of Boston, followed with appropriate remarks on the same subject.

The whole subject of printing the lectures was referred, after some discussion, to the Board of Directors.

Mr. Pennell, of Lawrence, offered the following Resolution of thanks, which was adopted:

Resolved, That the thanks of this Association be presented to those gentlemen and ladies who have acted as a Committee of Reception, for their prompt and assiduous attentions; to the citizens of New Bedford for their very generous hospitalities to female teachers and others, whom they have welcomed to their homes; to the City Authorities, for the use of the City Hall; to those editors of newspapers, who have gratuitously advertised our meetings; to the superintendents of the several railroads,

for the extra facilities which they have extended to us; to the Lecturers, for the rich gratification and instruction they have afforded us; to the Editors of the "Teacher," for their successful labors; to the Committee, who have superintended the publication of the first volume of the Transactions of the Association, for the care and labor they have bestowed upon it; and our thanks and congratulations to all the competitors for the "Essay Prizes," for their successful efforts, for successful we are assured by the Committee they have been *in producing good essays*, though, of prizes, all could not be partakers.

After eloquent remarks by Messrs. Thayer of Boston, and Dellingham of Sandwich, the Association adjourned.

The next meeting will be held in Boston.

The Prize Essay, by Mr. M. P. Case of Newburyport, will be found on the third page of this number of the "Teacher." The Prize Essay, by Miss Margaret Bliss of Springfield, will appear in the February number. The Essays will be returned to the Authors with the envelopes unopened, on application to Mr. Samuel Coolidge, at the office of the "Massachusetts Teacher."

CHARLES J. CAPEN, *Secretary.*

BOARD OF DIRECTORS OF THE MASSACHUSETTS TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

THE Board met at the Latin School, Boston, Dec. 12th ult.

The Secretary was instructed to present a copy of the volume of "Transactions," lately published by the Association, to each of the Normal Schools in the State; to the Chairman of the Legislative Committee on Education, and to each of the members of said Committee; to Mr. J. D. Philbrick, for the Normal School in Connecticut; and was further instructed to forward those copies already voted by the Association.

Messrs. Reed, Stearns, and Capen were appointed a Committee to proceed to the publication of another volume of the Transactions.

Messrs. Kneeland, Smith, and Gay were appointed to procure a seal and blanks for Certificates of Membership.

A Committee of five, consisting of the President, with Messrs. Reed, Smith, Allen and Kneeland, was appointed to petition the next Legislature for an Act of Incorporation, and for pecuniary aid.

The sum of thirty dollars was appropriated for the Prize Essays for 1853, and the President of the Association was requested to make arrangements for the same, in accordance with the plan adopted at the last award.

The thanks of the Board were presented to Mr. J. D. Philbrick for his constant, able, and energetic services in behalf of the interests of the Association; and especially for his valuable services in sustaining and improving the "Massachusetts Teacher."

The Committee on the "Massachusetts Teacher" reported the following gentlemen as constituting the Board of Editors for 1853:

For Jan., 1853,	George Allen, Jr., Boston.
" Feb., "	E. Smith, Cambridge.
" March, "	E. S. Stearns, W. Newton.
" April, "	J. W. Allen, Hyannis.
" May, "	M. P. Case, Newburyport.
" June, "	W. C. Goldthwaite, Westfield.
" July, "	Charles Hammond, Groton.
" Aug., "	J. W. P. Jenks, Middleboro'.
" Sept., "	W. W. Mitchell, Chicopee.
" Oct., "	A. Parish, Springfield.
" Nov., "	C. S. Pennell, Lawrence.
" Dec., "	J. Tenney, Pittsfield.
" Jan., 1854,	C. J. Capen, Dedham.
" Feb., "	F. N. Blake, Tisbury.
" March, "	C. C. Chase, Lowell.

CHARLES J. CAPEN, *Secretary M. T. A.*

REPORT ON PHONETICS.

[THE following Report was made at the last Annual Meeting of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association.]

THE Committee, to whom the Phonetic system of instruction was referred at the last meeting of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association, have examined the subject, and would report as follows: —

Phonography was invented by Isaac Pitman, of Bath, England, in the year 1837. It is a system of short-hand writing, based upon a philosophical representation of the forty sounds of the language; the spoken consonants being represented by heavy marks, and the whispered consonants by light marks; the long vowels being represented by heavy dots and dashes, the short vowels by light dots and dashes.

There is a primary style in which the words are generally written without contraction for beginners; a secondary style for correspondence, in which some of the most common words of the language are represented by a portion of the sounds

contained in them, in which, while principles of abbreviation, applicable to large classes of sounds, are introduced, each word in the language is still kept distinct from every other word, and a sentence of which, when seen for the first time by one familiar with the art, can be read at the rate of two hundred words per minute; and finally, a third style for reporting, in which there is more contraction, and more abbreviation, and which can be read and written at rates varying from one hundred to two hundred words per minute, according to the skill of the reporter.

About five years after the invention of Phonography, Mr. Pitman, with the aid of Alexander John Ellis, B. A., of Bristol, England, invented a system called Phonotopy, or printing by sound, having printed letters in place of the Phonographic, or writing-by-sound characters, which had been previously used, and soon after attached to this a system of long-hand Phonography, in which the written letters corresponded to the printed letters in the same way as the common or Romanic writing corresponds to the Romanic printing.

In Phonotopy all the letters of the Romanic alphabet were preserved which could be used to advantage. It was found that the three letters *k*, *q* and *x*, were duplicates of other letters, and therefore useless, the sound of the letter *k*, when not mute, being accurately represented by *c*, that of *q*, with the letter *u* added, either by *c*, or *cw*, and *x*, by *c*, *z*, *cs*, or *gz*; in all these cases, *c* and *g* having their hard or guttural sounds. The remaining letters of the Romanic alphabet are made in the Phonetic print, uniformly to represent those sounds for which they most frequently stand in the usual print. The seventeen new letters, which it was necessary to introduce for those sounds of the English which were generally designated by combinations of letters in the Romanic print, were made so much in harmony with the remainder of the alphabet, that a person previously unacquainted with the Phonetic print can read the most of the words without assistance.

It is thought that the principal object in securing this resemblance of the Phonetic print to the Romanic, was originally to induce the public to adopt the former as a *substitute* for the latter. But it has been found, without taking a radical step, that a wonderful gain may be made in teaching the reading, spelling, and enunciation of the common orthography, by the primary use of the Phonetic alphabet, and the Phonetic books. Not only should the child be taught to read by the means of the sounds of the language, which has been a favorite idea of many prominent friends of education, but he should have a fixed character for every sound, or else, in the outset, he will be likely to have a natural tendency to dislike his book; a

tendency sometimes, to be sure, overcome by a skilful teacher, but often irremediable.

For the common orthography has such a variety of changes, not only in the sounds attached to each letter of the Romanic alphabet, but also in the number of combinations attached to each sound, that the child is liable to become so confused at the commencement of his educational career, as to render it extremely difficult, if not impossible, for him to progress with any degree of rapidity satisfactory to the teacher. The letter *i*, for instance, is pronounced differently in the following words; pol*i*ce, s*i*n, b*i*rd, on*i*on, ev*i*l, bus*i*ness; while, at the same time, the long sound of *i* is represented by no less than twenty-six different letters, or combinations, such as *ais–e* in *aisle*, *eigh* in h*eigh*t, *ey* in *ey*ing, *eye* in eye, *hi* in r*hi*noceros, *hy* in r*hy*ming, *i* in b*i*nd, *ic* in ind*ic*t, *ie* in d*ie*, *ig* in s*ign*, *igh* in s*igh*, *ighe* in s*ighe*d, *is–e* in *isle*, *ui* in beg*ui*le, *uy* in b*uy*, *y* in fl*y*, *ye* in d*ye*, &c. The short sound of *i* is expressed in thirty-seven different methods, such as: *e* in pr*e*tty, *ui* and *ea* in g*ui*n*ea*s, *ee* br*ee*ches, *ei* in forf*ei*t, *ewi–e* in hous*ewi*fe, *hi* in ex*hi*bit, *hy* in r*hy*thm, *i* in p*i*t, *ia* in carr*ia*ges, *ie* in pit*ie*d, *o* in w*o*men, *u* in b*u*sy, *y* in ph*y*sic, *ey* in mon*ey*, *uy* in plag*uy*, &c., and the other sounds of the letter *i*, mentioned above, having as many more modes of representation.

Difficult as all these combinations are to learn, they must be taught to children. The experiments that have been made, show that they may be taught better and easier by means of the Phonetic system. The result of a recent test instituted by Miss Emily R. Baxter, teacher of a public school in South Boston, is thus expressed in her report to the Committee.

"Eight months since, there were in my sixth class, sixteen children who could not read, and who now average between five and six years of age. By authority of the local Committee, Phonetic books were used by that class. Some question afterwards arose whether the local Committee had authority on the subject, and it was therefore thought best, without any change of opinion of the local Committee as to the merit of the Phonetic method, to discontinue their use, which was immediately done. I was unprepared, however, to give any opinion upon the value of the system, and hence determined to pursue the experiment out of school hours. The children were divided, as equally as possible, in age, ability, and numbers. A portion of them, eight in number, received the usual amount of instruction in the common method in school. The remainder, (all of foreign parentage,) when both teacher and pupils were exhausted by the labors of the day, after each school session, were taught for twenty minutes by means of the Phonetic method, but received no instruction during school hours.

"What has been the result? From the sixth class those taught Romanically have advanced into the fifth as rapidly as children in a large school usually do in the same space of time. They can read easy words by first spelling them aloud, perhaps pronouncing one word in ten without the previous spelling, can enunciate passably, and perhaps spell a few short words.

"But from the same sixth class, the eight taught Phonetically have uniformly advanced, until they have reached, three the second, and five the third class, read fluently in *both* prints from much more difficult books than those taught Romanically use, spell so much better that there is no comparison between them, enunciate distinctly, and also analyze in a superior manner. In short, those taught Phonetically, read more fluently, spell, enunciate, and analyze better than their schoolmates in the same class, who are considerably older than themselves, and who have studied for a much longer period of time. One little boy four and a half years of age, has by the means of the new system, advanced so rapidly, that he reads, spells and enunciates the common print, better than his sister who is two and half years older than he is, and who has studied four times as long."

The Phonetic system of instruction, thus beneficial in its effects, has been introduced into 119 public and five private schools of Massachusetts.

A Committee of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, a Committee of the American Association of the Friends of Education, a Committee of the American Institute of Instruction, two Joint Committees of the Massachusetts Legislature on Education, a Sub-Committee of the Boston Primary School Committee, a Committee of the Ohio State Teachers' Association, a Sub-Committee of the School Committee of Cincinnati, and various committees of divers associations in different parts of this country, as well as in England, have reported in favor of this system of Phonetic instruction.

In short, your Committee have reason to believe that no Committee ever appointed to examine its merits have reported adverse to it.

The School Committees of Plymouth, Fitchburg, Lynn, Dedham, Somerville, Natick, Abington, North Bridgewater, Bridgewater, and Waltham, have already authorized its introduction into the public schools of those towns, for the purpose of teaching the reading, spelling, and enunciation of the common orthography.

Believing, therefore, that the new system contains much that will prove valuable in the instruction of youth, your Committee respectfully submit the following resolutions:

Resolved, That teachers in different parts of Massachusetts

be recommended to test the merits of the Phonetic system for themselves by actual trial in their schools, and report the results obtained in such a way as to secure their publicity.

Resolved, That School Committees be recommended to introduce the new plan of instruction only into those schools taught by teachers desirous or willing to use it.

All which is respectfully submitted.

F. N. BLAKE,
THOMAS SHERWIN,
STEPHEN C. DILLINGHAM.

Resident Editors' Table.

GEORGE ALLEN, Jr., ...*Boston*, } RESIDENT EDITORS. { E. SMITH, ... *Cambridge*,
C. J. CAPEN, ... *Dedham*, } { E. S. STEARNS, ... *West Newton*.

A NEW YEAR.

A new year has rolled in upon us, and, we trust, with improved prospects for the cause of education, and for all teachers, especially for the patrons of this Journal, who deserve success if they feel that interest in their profession which induces them to take and read an educational Journal. We ardently hope that the "Massachusetts Teacher" will continue to merit their support and encouragement, and that the close of the volume for 1853 will exhibit an improvement as great in degree as that which has marked its predecessors.

We see many points in which the "Teacher" might be improved, some of which can only be introduced gradually. Could the Editorial Department furnish to its readers a complete transcript of foreign, as well as domestic, educational news,— give some account of the contents of the foreign Reviews, such as the Edinburgh, the Quarterly, the Westminster, and Blackwood, its value would be enhanced; for teachers might thus be supplied with information highly valuable, and even essential to a thorough insight into foreign politics, and a complete acquaintance with the progress of Europe in letters, science, and art,— knowledge with which every teacher who wishes to be considered as belonging to the "living present" should endeavor to be supplied. A retrospect such as this department could afford, would not, indeed, furnish all desirable information of this kind, but it would, no doubt, form an agreeable and a useful feature of the work.

Notices of changes which may have taken place in schools, — of the appointment of superintendents and teachers, of the establishment of High schools, of increase in the salaries of

teachers; concise reports of teachers' meetings, so far as they may convey useful information; letters from abroad giving information in regard to schools, salaries, and expenses of living, and methods of teaching, and all educational news, may be considered as belonging to this department; and teachers are solicited to aid in making it complete. Any teacher can, if he please, contribute for the pages of this Journal, some item of news, or communicate some new idea in the science of teaching, thereby enriching its pages, helping to increase its circulation, and adding to the common treasury of useful information.

We invite the Editors of other Journals of this kind to exchange with us, and to remind us if we neglect to extend the usual courtesies.

At the commencement of a new year, may we not solicit for the "Massachusetts Teacher" a larger circulation? Although the list of subscribers has somewhat increased during the past year, it is by no means secured upon a sure basis, nor is the editorial charge yet independent of the charitable labors of a few teachers of the State; under these circumstances may they not ask of their brother teachers to lend it a helping hand; and if they do not chose to contribute to its pages, that they will do what they may to increase its list of subscribers, and thereby furnish it with that "material aid" without which all enterprises of this kind must meet with signal failure? C.

PUBLIC EDUCATION IN EUROPE.

Our readers will be glad to learn that Mr. Barnard is preparing for the press a new edition of his work on "Normal Schools," with the title of "Public Instruction in Europe," — a title which more accurately indicates the contents of the volume. Of the original work we have before spoken. We have not hesitated to pronounce it, in our judgment, *the most valuable contribution which has yet been made to the library of the American teacher or educator.* It is to our profession what Blackstone is to the lawyer, and Bowditch's Navigator to the mariner.

It contains the most complete history of the best systems of primary education in the several countries of Europe, and the only extended account which has been given in any books in the English language, of the various institutions, agencies and means for the professional training and improvement of teachers. It is full of valuable suggestions as to methods of teaching, and the arrangements of courses of instruction in schools of different grades. The suggestions and plans which it presents, are not

the crude speculations of a novice, but the matured views and varied experience of many wise statesmen, and practical teachers and educators, in perfecting systems and institutions, through a succession of years, under the most diverse circumstances of government, society and religion.

Mr. Barnard has availed himself of a recent visit to Europe, to extend the inquiries which he originally made in 1835–36, and to collect recent documents not only respecting primary schools and the training of teachers, but in every department of the educational field.

The forth-coming volume will embrace the history and latest statistics of universities, public libraries, *educational periodicals*, ragged schools, &c. The whole will make a volume of over six hundred pages, octavo.

We most sincerely wish that a copy of this invaluable work could go side by side with each copy of "Uncle Tom's Cabin," and be read by the same readers. In examining teachers who are candidates for important posts, it would be well to question them as to their acquaintance with this book.

P.

CHANGES.

THE readers of the "Teacher" will hereafter miss from its pages the services of a gentleman who has done much to enrich them with instructive and entertaining materials, and whose character, as an educator and as a man, is above praise. Many will know that we have reference to Mr. J. D. Philbrick, who has left the place which he has so long and so successfully filled, the mastership of the Quincy School, and gone to labor in a more extensive field of usefulness, and one, perhaps, better suited to his taste, his abilities, and his aspirations, — the State Normal School of Connecticut. We know not where the Superintendent of Schools in that State could have looked for a better selection. Mr. Philbrick entered the city service, we think, in 1844, as Usher in the English High School, having previously been employed since his graduation from Dartmouth, in 1843, as Principal of the High School in Roxbury. In 1845 he was appointed to take charge of the Mayhew School, from which, in 1848, he was transferred to the mastership of the Quincy School, then newly built and organized. What this school has become under his able management, they can judge who have visited it. The conduct of affairs in a school of from seven to eight hundred pupils is a work of no ordinary difficulty, and requires consummate skill and systematic arrangement. We venture the assertion, based on personal observation, that the Quincy School, under the able management of Mr. Philbrick, was a model both *in regard to* order and the general plan of instruction.

The Teachers and pupils of the Quincy School, on the occasion of his leaving, as an evidence of the esteem in which, as a teacher, friend, and counsellor he was regarded by them, presented Mr. Philbrick with a valuable silver vase and salver. The presentation was made in their behalf by Rev. Geo. M. Randall, Chairman of the Sub-Committee of the school, in a speech of great beauty and power, and an appropriate and feeling response was made by Mr. Philbrick.

We cannot close this short notice without bearing testimony to the valuable services which Mr. Philbrick has rendered out of the immediate sphere of his school labors. For the several past years he has labored zealously in the cause of education, and has done much in the "Massachusetts Teachers' Association" to make its influence respected. Under his supervision as resident editor of the "Massachusetts Teacher," a foster child of the "Association," it has increased in strength and usefulness, and has become clothed with an influence which its most ardent well-wishers had not anticipated for it. The value of the "Teacher" as an educational work depends, of course, upon the practical value of the contributions from those who are so kind as to edit it: but its *success* depends much upon its punctual appearance; and for this its Resident editors are responsible. Mr. Philbrick has ably edited several numbers, and for the past two years has been the main assurance of its promptness, and its most extensive contributor. For these services, as teachers, we owe him a debt which we cannot repay. But we may add that if the consciousness of services well-directed and bestowed is pleasant in proportion to their magnitude, then may he experience true pleasure and content. May success attend him. C.

Mr. J. W. Hunt, for many years the successful Principal of the High School in Plymouth, has received and accepted a call to take charge of the High School in Newton Centre. His taking leave of his pupils was characterized by an incident similar to one which we have recorded above: he was presented by them with a beautifully wrought silver pitcher.

Roxbury, we believe, next to Boston, appreciates the services of its teachers more highly than any city or town in the State. The salary of Mr. Long, Principal of one of the Grammar Schools in that city, has lately been raised to $1200.

Mr. C. E. Valentine, late Sub-Master of the Quincy School, Boston, has been appointed Principal of the school, in place of Mr. J. D. Philbrick, resigned. His salary is $1500. In the same school, Mr. B. W. Putnam has been promoted from the post of First Usher, to that of Sub-Master, salary $1000. Mr. J. O. Brown takes his place, salary $800.

THE

MASSACHUSETTS TEACHER.

Vol. VI. No. 2.] ELBRIDGE SMITH, Editor of this Number. [February, 1853.

MORAL AND RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION IN SCHOOLS.

[A PRIZE ESSAY. BY MISS MARGARET BLISS, OF SPRINGFIELD.]

Infinite benevolence has made ample provision for the happiness of every living being. That not all are happy, is owing mainly to a want of disposition to be so, rather than to outward circumstances or any natural inability.

Physical enjoyment is found in obeying the instincts of our nature; in eating, drinking, and sleeping. Such is the happiness of the brute.

Intellectual enjoyment is obtained by using the faculties of the mind in acquiring knowledge, and in reflection.

But the most exalted happiness arises from a love of what is truly excellent and worthy of love; in loving God, the source of all good, and in being like Him.

He is the best educated, who, in the full exercise of his physical and intellectual powers, has also learned to be happy, and it is the duty of the parent and teacher so to control, advise, and direct those placed under their care, that this end may be accomplished.

The physical education of children belongs more especially to the parent, whose business it is to provide in a well-ventilated school-room all the conveniences necessary for their comfort.

By the increased attention given to this subject of late, it is manifest that this matter is well understood. It is but little that a teacher can do independent of the parent.

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But the training of the intellect has been considered the

teacher's exclusive duty. To rouse the slumbering energies of the mind; to excite a thirst for knowledge that will not rest ungratified; to make the pupil feel his own strength, and be satisfied with no present attainments,—this is a teacher's duty.

It has been said that a skilful artist sees the statue in a block of marble, and by vigorous strokes of the hammer and chisel, he causes the form of beauty to stand before him, like a thing of life. In like manner, the teacher sees in the youth before him the elements of a character, fitted, it may be, to regulate the affairs of nations, and he makes every exertion to bring the statesman out. And there is as much persevering toil, intense devotion, and all-absorbing love for the work, in the one case as in the other, and a joy at the result as much greater as a living man is better than a senseless stone.

In accomplishing this, a judicious teacher will not allow the mind of the pupil to be distracted by a multiplicity of studies, nor discouraged by being too severely tasked. It may be said, that such is the natural indolence of many, and such their aversion to study, that there is but little danger that any will injure themselves by too close application. But that such is the fact we have the most painful evidence, and many a talented youth, too much encouraged by the vanity of the parent and teacher, has fallen a victim to his own ambition and desire to excel.

But whilst the physical education belongs to the parent, the intellectual, to the teacher, there remains the training of the moral nature, the cultivation of the heart, which, belonging equally to both, receives too little attention from either.

Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart, and thy neighbor as thyself, is the sum and substance of religion. In teaching this, we are not required to teach any particular set of doctrines, or system of theology. The religion that we want is that which will give the young enlarged and correct views of God as our Father; that will make them better sons and daughters, better brothers and sisters, and that will make them better citizens when they go out from home to act for themselves.

How can such a religion be taught in school? In the first place, the teacher must himself be a man of refinement, of enlarged benevolence, and ardent piety. Here, as in the sciences, he must himself know what he would teach. The Bible must be his text-book. We are aware that some parents object to this. They do not believe it themselves, and they have no desire that their children should be taught its truths. Concerning such, we have nothing to say. Bet whilst we only pity their blindness, and indulge the deepest sorrow for their children, we will continue to regard the Bible as the best, the only guide to true happiness.

In using the Bible as a text-book, it is not necessary that a

portion of scripture should ever be given to a pupil to be learned as a punishment. This is not teaching religion.

It does not require that the Bible should be put into the hands of a young child as a reading book, as soon as he can put three letters together; neither does it require the teacher to give an extended lecture once a week on religious subjects. All these may be done, and the end not attained.

A teacher, wishing to discharge his duty in this particular, was in the habit of spending one hour every Saturday morning in enforcing some religious truth on the minds of his pupils. Besides this, they learned a passage of scripture every day, to recite at the opening of the school. These verses were selected with particular reference to a system of theology which the teacher had adopted. But one day he departed so far from his system as to give the following passage to be learned:—

"Lo, the winter is past, the rain is over and gone; the flowers appear on the earth, the time of the singing of birds is come, and the voice of the turtle is heard in our land."

After giving a word of explanation, alluding briefly to the long winter rain of a tropical climate, the teacher remarked, that poetry more beautiful could not be found in any other book.

A little thoughtful girl, who had in her own composition all the poetry of feeling, though she had not language to express it in measured verse, listened in silence, but with the deepest attention. The weekly lectures had been heard with ill-concealed indifference; the passages of scripture had been learned and recited like any other task, and the system of theology was never understood, but the sweet melody of Israel's illustrious king touched a chord that produced the most delightful harmony. Since that time, the birds, the flowers, and the cheerful sunlight of a returning spring, fill her heart with a gladness before unknown; and she can scarcely refrain from uniting her voice with the joyous carol of the birds, as she wanders in the fields, or walks by the way-side, for she can sing with more understanding than they, "Lo, the winter is past, the rain is over and gone."

Another teacher had before him a class of boys. They were reciting a lesson in Ancient History, the topic for the day being the entrance of the Israelites into Canaan, under Joshua.

The teacher alluding to the stratagem of the Gibeonites, as it is recorded in the Bible, one of the class inquired where that was to be found, and said that he had never read it. On being told, as soon as the recitation was over, he found the story, and read it with as much avidity as he had ever perused the fictitious tales which constituted his library.

At another time, the lesson for the day was that part of the history of France, relating to Napoleon and his unparalleled suc-

cess as a general. The lesson, having been recited as usual, the teacher said cheerfully, "Boys, I can tell you how you can be greater than Napoleon." Every eye was fixed on the teacher, who said quietly, "He that ruleth his own spirit is better than he that taketh a city," giving his authority for the assertion. It was said for the purpose of giving a lesson to the youngest boy of the class, whose flushed countenance, flashing eye and angry words, whenever his actions were restrained or his plans thwarted, plainly showed that he had not yet learned to control his own spirit. The lesson was understood, and the meekness with which it was received equalled the kindness with which it was given.

Others of the class understood its application, and they afterwards went of their own accord to their teacher, requesting him to give them a motto or verse applicable to them. Glad of the opportunity thus to convey counsel or encouragement, he willingly complied. To one who frequently boasted of the ease with which he acquired a lesson, how little explanation he needed, how much more rapidly he could advance than some older member of his class, was given, "Let another man praise thee and not thine own mouth;" another, whose persevering diligence had won approbation, was encouraged by the truth, that "The hand of the diligent maketh rich;" to another, whose natural abilities were of a high order, but whose recklessness of conduct had caused his teachers and friends much anxiety, was given, "Whatsoever a man soweth, that shall he also reap."

This last afterward went to the teacher, frankly confessing that the selection of that verse had given him pain. The teacher encouraged him by telling him that the verse referred not more to the misery which is sure to follow an evil course, than to the prosperity and happiness that are the reward of well-doing.

Shortly after they all left school, and are now engaged in active business. The teacher does not know that the boy of the violent temper has become more meek; the self-conceited egotist, more humble; the diligent boy, rich; or if the reckless youth continues to "sow the wind to reap only the whirlwind;" but he does know that in giving such instruction, he was obeying one wiser than himself, who says, "In the morning sow thy seed, and in the evening withhold not thine hand: for thou knowest not whether shall prosper, either this or that, or whether they both shall be alike good."

Imagine such a teacher as has been described; one who, with intellectual attainments that fit him to be an instructor, has also a heart warm with love to God and love to man. Go with him to the school-room. The clock has struck nine. Every scholar is in his seat, with a Bible in his hand. The teacher mentions a *portion of scripture* to be read, adding a few words in explana*tion of its meaning*. A devotional hymn is sung; then the

selected verses are read in concert. The books are closed, and every head is bowed with reverence, whilst the teacher addresses Him from whom all our blessings come, humbly imploring that He who had given them health and intellect would also bestow upon each one a grateful heart, and a disposition to improve the advantages he enjoys.

The Bibles are laid aside and the usual recitations commence. But through the day the teacher embraces every opportunity to impart such knowledge as will influence the conduct of his pupils, and render them conscientious and faithful in all their duties. He does it, not by quoting scripture on every trifling occasion, for this is nothing less than profanity, but by the silent influence of his own example, and in some way that his own judgment may suggest, if not in a manner already described, he will endeavor to lead his pupils to read the Bible for themselves, so that they may become familiar with its interesting biography, its beautiful imagery, and learn to obey its divine precepts.

Such a teacher cannot but feel a deep interest in all who are placed under his care. He sees in the group before him, not here and there one whose brilliant talents promise much for the future, but he knows that in every form, however uncouth and disagreeable the exterior, there lies a gem of priceless value, an immortal spirit, constantly receiving impressions from his own example, and he is exceedingly watchful that in that example there shall be nothing unworthy of imitation. Happy are they who are blessed with the instructions of such a teacher, and who have been led by him to learn lessons of meekness, wisdom and holiness, of Christ, the "Great Teacher." They are then prepared to enter upon life's duties.

Cheerfully trusting in an overruling Providence, knowing that in the perilous voyage of life, his "Father 's at the helm," fearing nothing but wrong-doing, and ever cherishing the determination to discharge the duty that lies nearest to him promptly and faithfully, any youth will be successful. Sickness, disappointment, and bereavements may overwhelm him for a time, but they can have no power to *crush* such a spirit. They will only act as fire to the gold, and refine what they cannot consume. But there are many who enter upon the business of life as ignorant of that Blessed Book, given expressly to be their guide, as they are of the Koran. They put to sea without a pilot, without a chart, without a compass. What wonder is it, if the first storm leaves them stranded on the rocks, henceforth to be tossed on the tumultuous wave till it closes over them forever. This picture, too painful to dwell upon, would be less melancholy, were it in any degree imaginary, but the fate of many a talented *youth proves its truthfulness.*

It is only by the cultivation of right principles of action in the

young,—this moral training, that our civil and religious liberty can be preserved.

Politicians tell us that such is the perfection of the whole machinery of our government, that it will move on of itself, and that it makes but little difference who is placed at the head.

The fact, if it be one, certainly may afford consolation to those of us who, from our position, must remain quiet spectators in a political struggle like that now approaching. But if there is truth in the assertion, is it not owing to the fact that they who framed our constitution, who made our laws, were men that feared God? that they were made for a people who had been taught to control themselves by the principles of a pure religion?

The Revolution gave to America her freedom, her glory, and an exalted position among the nations of the earth. But what did a similar revolution give to France? Nothing but a deluge of blood. What caused the difference? If America had her Washington, France had her La Fayette. If there were many in America who pledged their "lives, their fortunes and their sacred honor," in the cause of liberty, so there were in France, and heroic enthusiasm and readiness to die for their country, distinguished as many in the one as in the other. Did not the difference in the result lie mainly in the different religious education of the people?

The French were a nation of atheists. "No God" stood out in bold relief at the entrance of the Tribunal, and thousands, guilty of no crime, were sent to the guillotine.

"No God" was inscribed on their halls of learning, and the scholar was taught that "Death is an eternal sleep." "No God" waved on the tri-colored banner over every place of amusement, and the prison was converted into a ball-room, the thoughtless inmates literally dancing on the brink of the grave.

An occurrence in our own beautiful valley affords an apt illustration of the progress and fate of the French Republic. Soon after the opening of the Western railroad, a train of cars left Boston for Springfield. The cheers of the multitude were heard as the engine moved steadily forward with its precious freight. But several miles before it reached its destination, its velocity became alarmingly increased. In vain the engineer endeavored to retard its movement. The machinery was made to work in a contrary direction, but that did not diminish the momentum which it had acquired. Men looked on with blanched cheek, and breathless fear, as they saw the line of light, like meteoric fire, on the icy rails behind. Massive brick walls formed no barrier to its progress, but on it dashed with tremendous fury till it found a lodgment on the banks of the Connecticut. Not unlike this was the progress of the Revolution in France. Its *action at first steady*, though powerful, the Republic moved on-

ward amid the cheers of the multitude, who vainly imagined that they saw in its train liberty, equality, and happiness. But soon it acquired a momentum that its leaders could not control. "Death is preferable to dishonor," exclaimed one, as he saw the abyss towards which they were tending, and with heroic endurance resigned himself to his fate. The world looked on with astonishment and fear, as they saw the Republic freighted with the life, liberty, and fortune of millions, rushing madly on till it was lost in a sea of blood. And France is now proving to the world in her own sad experience, that freedom and happiness dwell not with a people who will have "no God."

That our own country may be saved from superstitious bigotry on the one hand, and mad infidelity on the other, it is necessary that the young should be taught to study the Bible, and to regulate their conduct by its instructions. And in doing this, they have the example of one who served his country faithfully through a long life, receiving the highest honors that country could bestow; who aimed not so much to uphold a party, as *to do right*, and who, we are told, made the Bible "his counsel and his monitor." It is not necessary to mention the name of John Quincy Adams, for he "was known and read of all men."

Let the youth who go out from our schools, with all other accomplishments, be "adorned with the ornament of a meek and quiet spirit;" let them possess that firmness of character, that fearless independence which a determination *to do right* can bestow, and we may exultingly say, Happy, thrice happy America! Happy in a "philosophy to which the lightnings of heaven yield." Happy in a "patriotism that the temptations of earth cannot seduce," and happy in a pure and holy religion, with the God of Israel for thy defence, and the Lord Jehovah for thy King.

"Happy is that people that is in such a case: yea, happy is that people whose God is the Lord."

"How many a man in our own country, who would not acknowledge himself to come within the precincts of luxury, taxes both the Indies to supply his sugar and spices, and the eastern and western continents to furnish fruits for his dessert; while South America supplies mahogany for his tables, France his glass ware, China his dining service, England his table linen and his cutlery. If we look to his clothing, the wool grew on the flocks of Devonshire, the fur on the beaver of Hudson's Bay; while England furnished his coat, France his cravat, Ireland his linen, Switzerland his watch. The frame of his umbrella was borrowed from the whale, its covering from the silkworm, and its ivory head from the elephant."—Prof. Olmsted.

PHONETICS.

Report of the Minority of the Committee appointed by the Massachusetts Teachers' Association at the Meeting in 1851, *to report on the subject of Phonetics.*

READ AT THE LAST MEETING BY REV. CHARLES HAMMOND, OF GROTON.

THE subject of Phonetics was brought to the notice of the Association at their last meeting, at Fitchburg, in a lecture by Dr. Stone, of Boston. He illustrated the system of orthography which he advocated, by an exhibition of "Phonetic children," as they were called, who were little girls of the usual age of children who are learning to read and spell easy lessons.

It was very evident that these children had been well instructed, in both the common and phonetic methods of spelling. It is rare to meet so much enthusiasm as was apparent in both the lecturer and the learners under his charge. His earnestness secured the respect of his audience, and disposed not a few to regard with favor his views.

The system of phonetics, as presented by Dr. Stone, has the merit of simplicity; and it is also true that children of common capacity can acquire it without difficulty. It has, furthermore, some of the conditions of a perfect alphabet, as given by Dr. Latham, particularly these two,—That "no sound may have more than one sign to express it, and no sign may express more than one sound." Dr. Latham gives as another condition of a perfect alphabet and orthography, "That its primary aim be to express the sounds of words, and not their histories." The phonetic system makes it the sole aim to express sound, and regards in no manner whatever the histories of words; and for this reason it is rightly called the Phonetic system. It aims to perfect the present orthography of the English language, by removing all arbitrary signs which represent thought to the eye only, and making the elements of written language represent only articulate sounds as heard in the living speech of men. But our present orthography abounds with aphonetic elements, and, therefore, the aim of the phonetic system seems radical and revolutionary in the extreme. And yet, there is that which is common to both systems, for the general structure of the English language is, after all, phonetic, although it is so full of aphonetic anomalies.

Proceeding upon the assumption that every element introduced *into* the alphabet should have one sound only, and that every *sound should have* but one symbol, the Phonetic system aims to *improve the present* alphabet by giving new names to the sym-

bols of articulation. The names given to the vowels are, of course, no other than the powers or sounds of the vowels. The names given to the consonants are the articulations, or syllables produced by each consonant sound, or power, when joined with the vowel sound of *a* as heard in *hate*. The consonant letters, or elements, are understood to have no other designations than these. This plan serves to designate each element by its power, and has led to the impression, entertained by some, that no onomatology, or system of names was employed or deemed necessary in the Phonetic Alphabet, further than the powers of the elements themselves.

Such names should, indeed, be employed, as readily suggest the powers of the elements, and therefore the appellatives given to the aspirate letter *h* and to *w* are objectionable. But with these exceptions, the names given to the letters of the English alphabet are as suggestive of the powers of the letters as those employed by the Phonetic alphabet. It may be thought that the use of one vowel only will make the modifications of the consonants more obvious, because, then the sole distinction of names is in the difference of one consonant from another. This would seem to be an improvement, and would really be an improvement, if the assumption be true, that the more similarity there is in names or things, the easier it is for children to learn them. But we do not believe this is the fact, but rather the opposite, that the greater the diversity in names or things, the more readily will they be distinguished from each other. The distinctive powers of the consonants are just as obvious, whatever vowel be employed in their articulation. If the sole object of Phonetics be the analysis of the elements and powers of the letters and combinations of the letters of the English alphabet, then we will not say that the new onomatology would not be of service. But the child, when required to learn the alphabet, is not required as the first thing to learn the resemblances or differences of the letters, *but the letters or elements themselves.* When he has learned their names—the next step is to learn *their powers.* The Phonetic system aims to blend the names and powers as much as possible, assuming that the task of the learner will thereby be diminished, and a dislike of study be prevented. We prefer the old system by which the child learns the *name* and then the *power* or powers of each name—and let the name of each element be as distinctive as possible. We are not sure that the dissyllabic names of the Greek or Hebrew are better than the Romanic, so far as respects the sole point of distinguishing the elements.

The child, when he has learned the names of the letters in the English alphabet, proceeds to the next lesson, the ab *chapter of the primer, which* is to all intents a phonetic exer-

cise. The object now is, to learn the *powers* of the elements in monosyllables of two or three letters, at first, in which every element is sounded—and this practice in phonetics is continued till a facility is acquired in spelling easy words—that is, words entirely phonetic in their structure.

The pupil in phonetics does really just the same thing, and goes as far as we have carried the learner, and there he stops, for the reason that the road leads him no farther. By his system all words are made easy, and the art of spelling is in effect not only improved but abolished.

The mode of spelling easy, or phonetic words is, indeed, varied. Sometimes, in enumerating the elements, the pupils may give the names of the letters, and sometimes the powers only, and with a little practice one method is just as easy as the other if the powers be first taught the child. The phonetic pupils at Fitchburg spelled words with great rapidity by giving only the powers of the letters, without any other designation, and all this may be done just as easily by any teacher of the common or Romanic alphabet; and it is a very useful exercise. It may be a novel mode of spelling, but phonetics deserve not the credit of its invention, for the common orthography would just as soon suggest it. It would be, moreover, just as easy to spell words by giving the Hebrew or Greek name to the letters as the new phonetic distinctions, and the process would be of just as much consequence—and no more.

We do not believe it to be a great task for children to learn the English alphabet; and if it were a task difficult to perform, we really do not know to what the energies or the time of our abecedarians could be better devoted. It has been proved to be a fact, we think, that with the exception of the phonetic schools in Boston and in some other places in the vicinity of that city of notions, the forty vocal utterances of English speech have been taught to our entire reading populations with the aid of Webster's spelling book and kindred treatises. So easy is the task, indeed, of learning to read and spell *easy* words, that is, *phonetic* words, that multitudes cannot remember the time when they could not spell such words. Indeed, the amount of trouble in learning first lessons is so small, that the child soon forgets that he ever had any.

The claim set up by the advocates of phonetics, that the system is easy and saves time, is no recommendation.

Whatever is acquired easily, and in a short time by a child of common capacity only, cannot be worth much. Mental labor-saving processes at any stage, or in any process of mental growth, are to be objected to *a priori*. True it is that phonetics are so easy that any child may learn them, for they begin and *end with the* primer. With aphonetic words they have nothing to

do but to banish them from the language—if, perchance, it can be done.

But just where the phonetic system *ends*—with the primer—there the aphonetic system begins, and this system is a real science—something besides boys' play. English orthography has difficulties, and needs time to master them; and like other sciences it is one in which few become absolutely perfect. The Phonetic system is only a theory, as yet unapplied. It has no literature except its own apparatus of instruction. No one has adopted it except its own teachers and stenographists, to which last class it may be of some service, and through them to the world, just as the alphabet of the magnetic telegraph is of use—but not as a branch of common school education.

But the common orthography is, and must always be, a necessity. Nor is the time of the child lost in learning it. A knowledge of it is no mean acquisition. The exercise of learning to spell is one of the best that can be conceived of for young pupils. It is an exercise that trains the memory rather than the reason, and that is a happy circumstance. It calls for close attention—it induces the habit of discrimination and generalization, and thus it happens that in their earliest years children are, by means of a study, not above their capacity, and yet not easy, able to secure some of the best results of all education that truly deserves to be called education. Time spent by children, and adults even, is not lost in learning to spell. Who, that thinks, needs to be told, that to be a first-rate speller implies the possession of what is of greater value by far, than even that rare accomplishment ought to be considered, when taken alone by itself, without its relation to those habits of accurate thought and retention, which are the best fruits of all study?

But it is said that the Phonetic system has its uses in learning and analyzing the Romanic system of orthography. This claim we admit to some extent—and to just the same extent that the Romanic aids in learning the phonetic orthography. We have said that the general structure of English orthography is phonetic, and we say farther that the phonetic elements predominate in almost all English words. If, then, we leave out what the phonographists would thrust out, then one method cannot be used without suggesting essentially the other. And, therefore, it is no wonder that "phonetic children" can read Romanic print—and, on the other hand, pupils taught as everybody must be till the phonetic millennium comes, can without much pains read phonetic print. If, then, it is so easy, what other reason, than that it is of but little worth, prevents its prompt introduction and use?

But the claim is set up, that Phonetics teach more than the phonology of our common orthography. It is said that Mr.

Pitman has given us a key to unlock, at once, all the mysteries of our most inconsistent and anomalous orthography. And to establish this claim, Dr. Stone exhibited the "phonetic children" as marvellous spellers. He challenged for them the hardest words, with a structure as remote as possible from the laws of phonography, and would have had it understood by us, that from the working of a system of perfect symmetry there came forth, as a result, a knowledge of such grotesque, chaotic formations, as the words *phthisic*, and *physic*, *pneumatic* and *rendezvous*.

Phonetics, he would have us understand, taught those bright little prodigies that the word *intelligent* must be spelled with two *l's*, and *diligent* with only one.

Now, we think, that those rare spellers must have become such (whether consciously to themselves, or to their teachers or not, we will not say) in the same way substantially, that all learners become good English orthographists; that is, by close attention to the aphonetic elements of the language—and we will not say that in thus observing all the anomalous facts and forms of our common mode of spelling, they did not derive incidental aid from phonetics. We will go further and admit, that a clear, vivid view of the general phonetic structure of our language would serve to render the exceptions to general laws, equally clear and vivid, and thus assist the memory to retain those exceptions. But the same admission must be made in favor of the common mode of teaching English orthography. The common mode is amply sufficient to produce the same helps, if it be well taught. Every teacher knows that it is essential to success in spelling, that the pupil be established in his knowledge of the nature and powers of the elements of speech, and that if thus grounded he will readily notice the anomalies of the language, and that the greater the anomaly the easier it is for such a pupil to remember it. And therefore, it is, that such words as *rendezvous* and *phthisic*, and the like, are not so hard as the words *valleys*, *fiery*, *intelligent*, *diligent*, *&c.*

But it is said that the "Phonetic children" of Boston have won great distinction over the pupils of the other city schools who have competed with them. If the primary schools of Boston or New Bedford could be taught by a teacher in the common mode of spelling, as earnest in his calling as Dr. Stone seems to be, and if select pupils could be trained with the expectation of being tested in the presence of Governors and Counsellors, and especially in the presence of so grave a body as the Massachusetts Teachers' Association—if they could be drilled beforehand in the spelling of all the hard words carefully culled and tabulated, what might we not still anticipate as the fruits of the old system? And if so humble an institution as an

old-fashioned spelling school, could be established in all the school districts of the Commonwealth, and such stimulants were brought to bear as the Boston phonetic children have been favored with, then we are sure that editors and proof-readers would find that the "schoolmaster was abroad," and hard at work.

But not to dwell longer on the claims set up for the defence of the phonetic system, we will now refer to some of the positive difficulties and objections, which bear against any attempt to make it a branch of elementary instruction. Its advocates have aimed at nothing less than an entire reconstruction of English Orthography, and they would try to secure the aid of teachers to secure this result.

Against this attempt there are the following objections:

1. It cannot be done.

2. If changes in orthography, to a greater or less degree, are possible, it is not the province of any teacher of the English language to make these changes.

3. The reconstruction proposed ought not to be made, even if it were possible, and we had it in our power to effect it.

We say, first, that the proposed change of the alphabetic forms of the language is a work too difficult to be attempted. Among all the works of man nothing is so enduring as the forms of written language. The alphabet of a mature language used by a noble people, is as imperishable as the literature of that people. Hence we find no monuments of human art or wisdom so ancient as the symbols of thought and speech. We know not the elemental sounds which the Greek or Roman alphabet once represented. They have vanished away, being as frail and as unsubstantial as the lips or the breath that gave them utterance. But the thoughts embalmed in their written symbols of speech have been preserved, and they will never die. Their structures of marble and granite have crumbled to the dust, but the "all-devouring tooth of time" cannot destroy their alphabets. Well, then, might Ovid exult in the confidence of an immortal memory, when he said,

> Ore legar populi, perque omnia saecula fama,
> Si quid habent veri vatum praesagia, vivam!

And the reason of this can be stated in a word, that the highest ends and uses of a written language would be lost, if its forms were mutable or subject to decay. It is comparatively of little account whether they be perfect in theory; but it is of the utmost importance that they be permanent in fact. When will Homer's Iliad, or the Hebrew Bible be printed phonetically because beginners at first can but

"Just make out to spell?"

But it may be said that our language does not resemble those just mentioned, because its orthography is not fixed, like the historic languages.

Our language is indeed youthful, though its alphabet is very ancient. It is true that in the course of 400 years many changes have taken place. The Roman alphabet has within that time been adopted. But the reason of these changes is obvious, having their origin in the circumstances which gave rise to our noble language. The elements of our present English speech, made up by the contributions of different climes and ages, and conflicting races, were long in the process of assimilation. The battle of Hastings made William of Normandy the conqueror of England, and, in part, of the Anglo-Saxon tongue. But King James's translation of the Bible laid the basis of a settled orthography. From that time the forms of the language have been always approximating to a fixed condition, not to one of instability and revolution. And the wider it has been diffused around the world, and the more its readers have been multiplied in all lands, the greater has been the tendency to a uniform orthography.

But, it will be said, changes do after all take place. Johnson made many improvements. Our own great Lexicographer has attempted some excellent innovations, and in part succeeded. All this is admitted. But then the changes have in no case been radical. They have been slowly made, and in spite of great resistance. A life-time is needed to obtain the general consent to spell the word *phonetic* without the *k* appended. And what a bearing on this point has the battle of the two dictionaries, Worcester against Webster, with the Boston schools, phonetic and all, arrayed against the great innovator? We verily believe many of the advocates of the phonetic system would give it up sooner than they would abandon Worcester.

But, in the second place, if changes can be made, who shall make them? Not the Lexicographers, except to a limited extent. Shall teachers and professors attempt this work? That is not their vocation. Their duty is to teach what is written. "What is written is written," is the law not less for the University professor of rhetoric, than for the teacher of a common school. Who, then, may change the forms of written language, if they be changed at all? We reply, the masters of thought and speech—the great poets and orators who write what all the world will read. And the great masters of thought and style, have the right to choose their own forms of expression—and no man may lawfully change those forms thus chosen. Chaucer or Shakspeare will not be printed to accommodate a modern spelling school. The Scotch dialect of Burns will not be altered according to the latest edition of Walker's dictionary. To such *as are unwilling to* learn his dialect, his deathless words will be *and ought to be* without meaning. We do not believe that the

works of Daniel Webster will ever be printed in the phonetic character for general circulation.

Our final remark is, that the phonetic alphabet and orthography ought not to be introduced into the place of the common one, even if it were possible for us, of our own selves, to do it. "The gains of such an introduction," says Mr. Trench, "would be insignificantly small, while the losses would be enormously great." The ends of the fixed forms of a language are other and higher than to teach children how to spell it—be the process ever so easy or ever so hard. The fact that our present orthography abounds with strange and unreasonable anomalies, is no argument against the use of those anomalies for the interchange of human thought and the perpetuation of that thought. It is enough that those anomalies have the sanction of universal usage, and they will be retained. Do the advocates for their removal, really suppose that they found their way into our language, for the purpose of making our orthography hard for children to learn —even to the shedding of tears?

These anomalies may be unreasonable in *form*, but they have a most rational *use*, derived as they are from the very circumstances which gave birth to our noble language, without which it would never have had existence. It is not then really a fault or dishonor that it contains them. Indeed, it is not even a misfortune, but rather the opposite of all these. For it is a recent language, mixed, not aboriginal. In its vocubulary it has representatives from most modern tongues, and rich contributions from the Latin and Greek. And in its written forms, the scholar's eye at once perceives the paternity of almost all its words. It may be difficult for foreigners to master such a language as ours, and be none the less worthy of their earnest pains-taking on that account, for it contains the garnered treasures of strength and beauty that have belonged to the dialects of all the noblest nations of the world's history. And therefore old Camden has justly, though quaintly said:

"Whereas our tongue is mixed, it is no disgrace. The Italian is pleasant, but without sinews, as a still fleeting water; the French delicate, but ever nice as a woman, scarce daring to open her lippes for fear of marring her countenance; the Spanish majesticall, but fulsome, running too much on the *o*, terrible, like the Divill in the play; the Dutch manlike, but withall very harsh, as one ready at every word to picke a quarrell. Now wee, in borrowing from them, doe give the strength of consonants to the Italian, the full sound of words to the French, the variety of terminations to the Spanish, and the mollyfying of more vowels to the Dutch; and so like bees we gather honey of their good properties, and leave the dregs to themselves. And thus, when substantial*nesse combineth* with delightfulnesse, fulnesse with *finenesse, seemlinesse* with portlinesse, and currantnesse with

staydnesse, how can the language which consisteth in all these sound other than full of all sweetnesse?"

Since, then, our language is derivative, almost all its words must have a history expressed in their written forms; while with these forms there are associated and blended shades of meaning and force which very often can be determined in no way but by the written form. It would then be an evil, in very truth, to blot out of being at a stroke, all the history of almost the entire language, which is now most happily inwrought into its elementary structure, and which is a repository of truth of surpassing value to the scholar, and of the highest reason also to those "in whom are found knowledge and understanding, and showing of hard sentences, and dissolving of doubts."

Do not the very names by which we designate the phonetic system give us an illustration of the value of the historic forms of words? They are taken from the common thesaurus of technical terms, bearing the changeless meaning and the imperishable form of the Greek words, which repel from themselves the application of the principles of that very system they are employed to define; thus in its very title and superscription, showing the whole scheme, in any other light than as an unapplied theory, to be absurd and contradictory.

The facts, then, or the fixed forms of English orthography, however stubborn, or grotesque, or unaccountable, or even unreasonable, they may appear to the uneducated, cannot be forced from the language. There they must remain, and the child has nothing to do with them but to learn them if he can, and learn them well, reserving his "obstinate questionings of sense and outward things" for the studies and judgments of his maturer years.

"I can conceive," says Mr. Trench, "of no method so effectively defacing and barbarizing our English tongue, no scheme that would go so far to empty it, practically at least, and for us, of all the hoarded wit, wisdom, imagination, and history which it contains, to cut the vital nerve which connects its present with the past, as the scheme of 'Phonetic Spelling,' which some have been lately zealously advocating among us — the principle of which is, that all words should be spelled as they are sounded, that the writing should be in every case subordinated to the speaking.

"The tacit assumption that it ought so to be, is the pervading error of the whole system. But there is no necessity that it should; every word, on the contrary, has *two* existences, as a spoken word and a written—one for the *ear*, the other for the *eye*, and you have no right to sacrifice one of these, or even to subordinate it wholly to the other.

"A word exists as truly for the eye as for the ear, and in a *highly* advanced state of society, where reading is almost as uni-

versal as speaking, words exist as much perhaps for the first as the last. That in the written, is the permanence and continuity of language and learning, and that the connection is most intimate of a true orthography, with all this, is affirmed in our words, '*letters*,' *literature*, *unlettered*, even as in other languages by words entirely corresponding with these, as in the Latin '*litterae*' and the Greek '*grammata*.'

"Words have now an ancestry, and the ancestry of words, as of men, is often a very noble part of them, making them capable of great things, because those from whom they are descended have done great things before them; but phonetics would deface their scutcheon, and bring them all to the same ignoble level. Words are now a nation, grouped into tribes and families, some smaller, some larger. But phonetics would go far to reduce them to a promiscuous and barbarous horde. Words are now often translucent with their idea, as an alabaster vase is lighted up by a lamp placed within it? In how many cases would this inner light be quenched by phonetics? Words have now a body and a soul, and the soul looking through the body; but if phonetics prevail, then nothing but the body, not seldom nothing but the carcass of the word remains. Lord Bacon long ago characterized this so-called reformation 'that writing should be consonant to speaking,' as a branch of 'unprofitable subtlety,' and especially urges that thereby the derivations of words, especially from foreign languages, are utterly defaced and extinguished.

"Indeed the slightest tendency towards the phonetic mode of writing is to be objected to, in respect to all classical words. We have lost rather than gained by our approximation towards that system. When *fancy* was spelled *phantsy*, by the old scholars, no one could doubt of its connection, or rather its original identity, with *phantasy*, as no Greek scholar could miss its relation with φαντασία. Spell *analyze* as I have sometimes seen it, and as phonetically it ought to be, *analize*, and the tap root is cut off. What numbers of readers will recognize in it *then*, the image of dissolving and resolving aught into its elements, and use it with a more or less conscious reference to this?

"It may be urged that few do so now, even among those who use the word. Then the more need they should not be fewer —for those few do in fact retain the word in its place, prevent it from gradually drifting from it, and preserve its vitality, not for themselves only, but for others who have not this knowledge. In phonetic spelling there is in fact the proposal, that the educated should voluntarily place themselves in the conditions and under the disadvantages of the ignorant and uneducated, instead of seeking to elevate these last to theirs."

All which is respectfully submitted.

CHARLES HAMMOND,
J. D. PHILBRICK.

REMARKS ON THE ANGLO-SAXON LANGUAGE.

No. II.

[*Continued from page* 17.]

Orthography.—The Anglo Saxon alphabet contains 23 letters. It wants *j*, *k*, *q*, *v*, and *z*, and has distinct characters to represent the sharp and smooth sounds of *th*. Owing to the little acquaintance of writers with each other, the errors of transcribers and other causes, the orthography is very irregular, the same word being often spelled in half a dozen or more different ways. We may notice two particulars in which our language and the Anglo-Saxon differ, and in which we think the latter has the advantage. 1st. In the Anglo-Saxon, we have *hw* instead of the combination *wh*, as in English; as, *hwa*, who; *hwit*, white. 2d. Our termination *le*, was in Anglo-Saxon *el*; as *aeppel*, apple; *botel*, bottle.

Etymology.—There are nine parts of speech. The Noun, Pronoun, Article, Adjective, and Verb, declinable; the Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection, indeclinable. The Substantive parts of speech were declined with three Genders, four Cases and two Numbers.

The Article.—There are two articles; both definite *the*, and *se*, *seo thaet*. *Th* has the sharp sound. We give the declension of the Article *se*, *seo*, *thaet*.

SINGULAR.

	Mas.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	
Nom.	se	seo	thaet	*the*
Gen.	thae	thaere	thaes	of the
Dat.	tham	thaere	tham	to, for, with the
Acc.	thone	tha	thaet	the.

Plural, Nom. tha, Gen. thara, Dat. tham, Acc. tha, for all genders. The articles were also used for the relatives who, which, and thaet.

The Noun.—The Nouns have three declensions, depending on the termination of the Genitive singular, in *es*, *an*, or *e*. As a general rule, the Dative singular is like the Genitive, dropping *s* when the latter ends in *es*; the Accusative singular is like the Nominative, except in the 2d declension, when it ends like the Genitive. The Genitive plural always ends in *a*, and the Dative in *um*, or *on*; the Accusative is like the Nominative. We give the declension of a Noun of the 1st Declension, Masculine gender. Se ende, the end.

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
N.	Se end–e	the end	tha end–as the ends
G.	thaes end–es	of the end	thara end–a of the ends
D.	tham end–e	to the end	tham end–um to the ends
A.	thone end–e	the end	tha end–as the ends.

This will serve as a general specimen, there being, of course, many special rules. The termination of the possessive in English seems to be derived from the Genitive in *es* above given, although some grammarians have supposed it to be a contraction of *his*, denoting possession. We may mention, as somewhat curious, that *monu*, moon, is masculine, *sunne*, sun, feminine, and *wif*, woman, neuter.

The Adjective.—Adjectives are declined, to correspond with the nouns they describe. They have two forms of declension, the indefinite, and definite. The former, when the adjective stands alone with its noun; the latter, when it is preceded by an article, or pronoun. The declension of the article will give a sufficient idea of that of the adjective. Adjectives are compared by adding *ra* or *re* for the comparative, and *ost*, *est*, or *esta*, *este*, for the superlative. As, smael, smael-ra, smal-est; small, smaller, smallest. Some are irregularly compared, corresponding with similar ones in English. As, god, betera, betst, good, better, best: lytel, laessa, laest, little, less, least.

Y. Y.

[*To be continued in the next No.*]

LETTER FROM THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.

HONOLULU, *Sandwich Is., Sept. 3d*, 1852.

* * * You ask about the arrangements of my school. I hope you may see them for yourself, in the course of six or eight months. If you should not, though they are hardly worth recording, and though you will find little in them worthy of imitation, perhaps you may find some things to be avoided, so I will give you a hasty description. All the pupils study in school during school hours. Every scholar is expected to be in his seat at nine o'clock, A. M., without being called. No bell is rung for them at that hour—I speak now of only my department; the other scholars are too young to tell the time by the town clock, which is in plain sight of the school-house. Two or three or five minutes before nine you will see the scholars coming in from their sports and getting quiet in their seats. Every one not in his seat at nine is marked tardy, or absent, as the case may be, which appears in the report, and every one who is tardy loses his morning recess. There is to be silence at nine,—no more talking or leaving seats. Any who are found talking or whispering, or communicating in any way, after nine, are marked for misconduct, which appears in the weekly report. A quarter of an hour is spent in devotions,—reading the Bible, singing, and prayer. The school reads in turn, each pupil

reading one verse. Sometimes we read a whole chapter, and sometimes not more than a dozen verses. I take occasion to make explanations or general remarks, from time to time. Each scholar keeps his own place, and remembers when it is his turn to commence. Nothing is said, but, as soon as school opens, I read a verse, and then he whose turn it is follows. Our recitations follow in order, its own time being allotted to each recitation. Some pupil keeps the watch and the bell, and indicates by one or two strokes of the bell that the time for that exercise has almost expired. In two or three minutes the bell strikes again, when the class are expected to have had their lesson assigned and to have passed to their seats, and the next class comes immediately up. The *classes* sit at the time of recitation, but each pupil stands when called upon to recite. Some of the classes, such as those in mental arithmetic, stand during the whole recitation. In conducting recitations, pupils sometimes recite by *topics*, and sometimes by questions, as I see fit. I adopt neither extreme in this respect. I have a great deal of criticising each other, both in respect to the manner of reciting and the matter recited, and it works admirably. I allow them, or rather *desire* them, to criticise everything which is out of place, in position, or in the manner of holding their books, or anything which may properly be criticised. I have never found an instance in which the person criticised did not take it in good part, although the criticisms are sometimes very severe. There are many advantages in this; two in particular are worthy of mention. It secures the attention of every member of the class as nothing else will that I have tried. It also leads pupils to study their lessons so as to understand them. I do not find any difficulty in their making improper criticisms, and I am sometimes surprised at the minuteness and justness of them. We carry this practice into our reading exercise more than into any other, and the effect is wonderful. I rarely have any difficulty in keeping the attention of the class fixed on the lesson, and you will often see all the hands up for some criticism as soon as one has finished reading. In this exercise I generally have the pupil re-read till he has corrected the faults pointed out. I vary the reading exercise from time to time. Sometimes the whole class read in concert—sometimes I give out a piece for them to commit to memory, and then have them rehearse it separately and in concert—sometimes I give out a piece written by some particular person and require them to learn all they can about him and his works. For instance, I tell them to learn Longfellow's Psalm of Life, and then we discuss Longfellow and his works. One object I have in this is to direct their attention to the literary world, and introduce them a little into it. Sometimes I give them a lesson and request them to study

it with reference to describing the picture presented, and ask such as choose, to draw pictures of the scene represented. They have made drawings which illustrated some of the pieces very well, much better than most of the illustrations of the popular works of the day. I have one lad in particular who illustrates to the life, and he is only fourteen years old. Sometimes we read a piece with reference to its literary merits, examining and analyzing it critically. But I will speak no further of this point except to say that our reading exercise is generally an interesting one.

In arithmetic I generally call up the subject under consideration and see that they understand it, sometimes asking questions, and sometimes calling upon pupils to explain the whole subject. After the subject is clearly understood, I send the whole class to the blackboards, sometimes giving them all the same problem, and at other times assigning different problems to different individuals, either original problems made up for the occasion, or from the book. We spend a considerable time in mental arithmetic with the first class, not having regular lessons in it, but calling upon the class to add, multiply, divide, &c., with rapidity, such numbers as I choose to give out or write on the board.

In grammar I can hardly tell what my plan is. We have no book as a text-book, though I shall put a class into "Greene's Analysis" as soon as our books come. We have given out lessons upon the different parts of speech, letting them learn their lessons wherever they choose, and then at the recitation we discussed the points and settled what we thought was correct. For instance, speaking of gender, the class would say there are four genders. Then we would correct them something after this manner. "What is gender?" "Gender is a distinction in nouns with reference to sex." "Is it a distinction with reference to anything else besides sex?" "No." "How many sexes are there?" "Two." "Then how many genders are there?" "Two." "What are they?" "Masculine and feminine." "But is there no neuter gender?" "No,"—"yes,"—"no,"—. "Silence."—"Do nouns which are called neuter represent objects which have sex?" "They do not." "Have they, then, any gender, since gender refers only to sex?" "They have not." "But why have grammarians almost universally fallen into the error of giving a neuter gender to English nouns?" No reply. "Probably because they have tried to extend the similarity between our language and others —as the Latin, for example—too far. In Latin, gender is not merely a distinction in regard to sex, but also in regard to the form of the word, a certain form of termination in the noun requiring a certain form of the adjective to agree with it, and

this peculiarity in nouns is called gender in Latin. But there is no such peculiarity in English, and hence no propriety in the distinction. But are there no common nouns?" "No,"—"no,"—"yes,"—"no." "Silence."—"When the noun may apply to either a male or female being of the same class, is there any distinction of sex made?" "No." "Did the writer intend that we should know what the sex was?" "He did not." "Is there any gender, then?" "There is not." "But is it not the object of *some* sex?" "It is, but the noun does not indicate what that sex is, and so there is no distinction of sex made." "Ah, yes! that is it precisely." After going through such a course of reasoning with them as the foregoing, then I would reverse the order, and ask them to tell me why there were only two genders. So I would proceed through all the points of grammar, making them reason out, as far as possible, the incorrectness of their own notions.

To illustrate further, the subject being tenses:—"Please to name the tenses." "There are six tenses, the present, imperfect"—"Ah! *imperfect?* What is an *imperfect* tense?" "An *imperfect* tense expresses what is past and finished." "Another." "An imperfect tense expresses what was finished in some indefinite *past* time. "Very well, is there anything *imperfect* in that?" "There is not." "When was the action performed?" "In *past* time." "What tense should it be called, then?" "The *past* tense." "But why have so many grammarians called it the imperfect tense?" No reply;—"Probably because the *Latin* has an *imperfect* tense somewhat resembling this." "But is it not improper to call it the *imperfect* tense in Latin?" "No, because in Latin it *is* an imperfect tense." "What does the *imperfect* tense in Latin denote?" A Latin scholar replies, "It generally denotes what *was taking place* at the time referred to,—something that was unfinished at that time; the *perfect indefinite* in Latin corresponds more nearly to our *past* tense." But this will suffice to illustrate my plan. I have thus been over with all the technicalities of grammar, subject by subject, with the first class, explaining and discussing them freely. Now I connect *analysis* with *parsing* or *constructing;* making *analysis* of the most importance; perhaps I should say I make *synthesis* precede them both, for our lessons now are, writing sentences containing certain elements of a particular form and use, and then these sentences are analyzed and parsed.

The rules for construction we fix upon as occasion calls for them, or rather, I give out exercises which require a particular construction, and then we discuss and determine what rule is best for that particular form of construction. With the beginners I proceed somewhat differently, as their minds are not full of errors to be corrected. After having set clearly before them

the object of their study, I begin in a familiar conversation about things around us:—"What is this?" "A pencil." "And this?" "A desk," &c. "What are the words *pencil* and *desk?*" "They are the names of those objects." "Have all objects names?" "They have." Then I would go on and illustrate farther. "Now these words which are the names of objects, we call nouns. What is a noun?" "A noun is the name of an object." "Is this desk a noun?" "Yes,"—"yes,"—"no." "What is a noun?" "A noun is a word which—." "What did you say a noun is?" "A noun is a *word*—." "Not the thing itself, then?" "No, sir; but the *word*, which is the name of the thing." "Very well; how many can tell what a noun is?" All hands up. "You may take for your next lesson to write twenty nouns."

When the next lesson comes the nouns are brought forward and read and discussed, and so on, until all get a clear idea of a noun. Some have *proper* nouns, which gives occasion to point out the distinction between common and proper nouns, and a lesson of proper nouns is assigned, and so of number and person. Thus we go on from one thing to another without any book, though I shall put a book of some kind into their hands by and by. The small class have most of them got the verb so that they can go through all the forms, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons, and without a book to learn it out of, too. In fact, I never saw a book which gave the verb correctly, according to my notion of it. But I will leave this point.

[*To be continued in the next No.*]

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E. S. STEARNS, *W. Newton*.

LETTER FROM OHIO.

FOR the information of subscribers, we insert an extract from a letter of Dr. Lord, of Columbus, Ohio, to the President of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association, by whom it was read at the late meeting in New Bedford. After a few preliminary remarks, Dr. Lord proceeds as follows:—

"Accept our hearty thanks for your kind invitation, and the many proofs of interest and sympathy for us, which we have received from you and your associates; and permit me to assure you that we rejoice in all the successes, and sympathize with the labors and trials of our brethren, in every part of the Union.

Our State Teachers' Association was formed in December, 1847. At that time there were only four or five towns and cities in the State, in which anything like a system of classified schools existed; and, generally speaking, the Public Schools in the larger towns and villages were in a worse condition than those of the country districts. We had no State Superintendents of Schools, (de facto) no Board of Education, no agency for calling the Teachers together for personal and professional improvements, and, as might naturally be expected, young and inexperienced persons were mostly employed to teach, the compensation paid being too small to induce persons to *qualify* themselves for teaching, or to continue in the employment if they were competent.

Immediately after the formation of the Association, arrangements were made for attending Teachers' Institutes in as many counties as possible, a Normal Class was formed, and every effort made to form a correct public sentiment in regard to the necessity of classified Schools, well-qualified, permanent teachers, good school-houses, etc.

The result of its labors (in part at least,) may be summarily stated: from 2000 to 3000 or 3,500 teachers have been annually instructed in Teachers' Institutes; Union or Classified Schools are now in successful operation in nearly one hundred town and cities; a large number of good school-houses have been built; the wages of male teachers (principals) have been increased from $350 or $400 to $600, $800, or $1,000 per year, and of females, from $2 or $3 per week, to $200 or $250 per year, (and the best qualified receive in many instances from $350 to $500 or $600.) Nearly two years since we employed an agent to devote himself entirely to conducting Institutes, and aiding in the organization of Union Schools, to whom was paid last year, by voluntary contributions, (from teachers, mainly,) about $1,000, and this year $1,200 or $1,500 will be raised. A year since, our "Journal of Education" was commenced, which has more than paid its expenses, and will give us something toward the support of the agent, and the other plans of the Association.

Beside these direct results a much more correct and healthy public sentiment has been created, the active teachers are virtually recognized as a *Profession*, which is clearly shown by the facts that Superintendents of Public Schools and Principals of Union Schools, are now receiving a compensation fully equal to that paid to Presidents and Professors in Colleges, and that Boards of Education are accustomed to consult them in relation to the construction of school-houses and the organization of their *school systems, and* generally to leave to Superintendents the ar*rangement of the* course of study, the classification of pupils, gra-

dation of schools, &c., as fully as Trustees of Colleges entrust these things to the Faculty.

Our teachers have very generally become accustomed to *give* annually, as *members of a profession*, for the promotion of the interests of the cause of *general education*, with whose advancement they consider the continued improvement and elevation of their own calling to be *inseparably connected.*

Yours, truly, A. D. LORD.

SCHOOLS IN ST. LOUIS.

THE following letter from Mr. J. H. Tice, Secretary of the Board of Public Schools in St. Louis, affords a clear and succinct account of those schools, and will be read with interest, we hope, by all persons engaged in education. The annexed report of a Special Committee of the Board in regard to the establishment of a High School, from the Missouri Republican, will, like good news from a far country, also prove acceptable, and may give an impetus to similar projects here in the East.

LETTER.

ST. LOUIS, Nov. 12th, 1852.

W. H. WELLS, ESQ.,

Dear Sir:—In compliance with a promise made you while here a few days ago, I send you the annexed statement of the School system in this city, together with such information as may be interesting to you, relative to its operations.

We have no connection with the State system, (?) receiving neither State nor County money, being cut off from both by the wisdom (?) of the State Legislature. The State has a fund of about $750,000 at interest, derived from her share of the United States deposit Act of 1836, and from the proceeds of saline lands donated by Congress for the purposes of a School and University fund. The interest on this fund is annually distributed amongst the counties of the State, and amounts to about forty cents per scholar reported. The Congressional townships have each a fund of its own, arising from the proceeds of the 16th section of land, which is appropriated by Congress, in each township, for a township school fund. Besides these, there is a County school fund, composed of all the fines imposed by our courts, and also forfeitures of recognizances, or bonds for keeping the peace, &c. From all benefit of these, the St. Louis city schools are excluded by law, as already stated.

The city, however, has a very rich fund of her own, and will derive a large income when the long leases expire, entered into while St Louis was but a village, and ground of but little value. This fund consists of lands donated by Congress by the Act of 1812; which gives to the

old Spanish and French towns all the vacant lands, that is, lands not granted or ceded to individuals, by the French or Spanish Governors, or not occupied and cultivated by individuals, on and prior to the 20th of December, 1803, the day that the French authorities surrendered the possession to the American Government. The land now in possession of the School Board is worth nearly $1,000,000: about another $1,000,000 worth is claimed by the Board; and a suit is now pending before the Supreme Court, involving $500,000 worth of land, for which a decision is daily expected. These lands are leased by the Board, at present, upon perpetual leases, renewable every ten years, at 6 per cent. upon the value of the ground. Formerly the renewal was every fifty years. Owing to this, the most valuable parts of the lands were leased at low rates upon long leases. The income of the Board for rents is nearly $13,000 annually. There is also imposed by law, sanctioned by a vote of the people in June, 1849, a tax of one-tenth of one per centum on all taxable property within the limits of the city. This tax will amount to $29,000 the present year, and is increasing annually.

Our Board is an independent corporation, subject to no control or revision of the city corporation; it manages its own funds, imposes its own taxes, employs its own agents, makes its own engagements, determines its own measures, and appropriates its own money, according to its will and pleasure, without any limit or restriction, except what it owes to public opinion. How such a school corporation would answer elsewhere, I cannot tell, but here the salvation of public instruction depended upon this independence of the Board.

We may date the actual and efficient commencement of our school system, to the date of "the importation," as it was then called, "of Massachusetts Teachers" in 1848, when the Board sent an agent to employ teachers in Massachusetts. Some of our schools were very respectable before that time, but nothing to be compared to the high and elevated standard they have now attained. Our System is that which obtains in all cities, and is called in the country the Union School System, though perhaps our subdivision of labor is not so great as in some places. We have only the Primary and the Grammar School, but contemplate to add a High School the coming year. I believe it would add much to its efficiency if we had schools intermediate between the Primary and Grammar School. As it is, we cannot make a very exact classification of pupils according to their attainments, nor devote sufficient time to classes in the various branches taught. An Intermediate School would reduce the number of classes in the Grammar Schools, and consequently give more time for instructing the more advanced classes, whose progress would be greater.

Our Schools are organized upon what I believe is sometimes called the double-headed system. Each building generally has three stories appropriated to a Primary and two Grammar Male and Female schools. In each story there is a main room, in which all the scholars are seated, and in which the Principal teaches; he is assisted by two assistants, who hear their classes in separate class rooms. We have twenty-two *schools now in operation*, embracing about 3,000 pupils, and are just *about completing* two additional buildings, which will add six schools

to our number, and about 1,400 pupils. We have in the employ of the Board thirty-four teachers, whose salaries are as follows:

Male Principals,	per annum, ...	$1,000
Do. Assistants,	"	450
Female Principals,	"	400 and 450
" Assistants,	"	300

Besides this, the Board employ a general Superintendent, at a salary of $1,500.

The houses we have built during the past season, will cost when completed, about $13,500 each, and are the most commodious in the city. A house and lot generally cost us about $2,500. Our income last year was $47,500; consisting of rents about $15,000, taxes $27,000, sundries $5,500.

The Board also employ a music teacher to give two lessons a week in each of the Grammar Schools, at $500 per annum. The public teachers have an Association, which meets every fortnight, and they have established a library for the use of the Association, out of their own funds. The Board, this year, have appointed $100 to aid them, and have ordered an annual appropriation of like amount. It is the intention of the Association to give a course of lectures this winter, and appropriate the proceeds to the library, a philosophical, chemical, and astronomical apparatus.

Our text books have, in a few years, been entirely changed. Webster is our standard, and a copy of his quarto Unabridged Dictionary is placed by the Board in every school. Mitchell's Geographies are used, together with Pelton's Outline Maps and Keys. A. Smith's Astronomy, and Holbrook's School Apparatus, are used in our Grammar Schools. Greene's Grammar and Analysis were substituted for Bullions's Grammar about three years ago, and are giving general satisfaction. Stoddard's American Intellectual Arithmetic was substituted about the same time for Colburn's. The improvement in Arithmetic has since then been astonishing and unprecedented. I doubt whether there are any schools anywhere, which surpass ours in this branch of study. Mandeville's series of Readers has just been adopted by the Board, with the expectation that it will do for schools in reading, what Stoddard has in Arithmetic. His method, or system, developed in his Elements of Reading and Oratory, is sentential classification and analysis, and is well worthy the attention of educators. We use Greenleaf's Common School and National Arithmetics, and Greenleaf's Algebra. Johnston's Philosophy is the text-book prescribed for that branch. The following books are also used: Town's Analysis, Worcester's, Willard's, Goodrich's, and Frost's Histories, Cutter's Physiology, Davies's Bourdon and Legendre, Playfair's Euclid, and Fowle's Speller.

I have thus hastily sketched such items as I thought might be of interest to you, which occurred to me at the time. Your indulgence is asked for the crude and hasty manner in which they are presented, as I have not even had time to revise it.

Very respectfully,

JOHN H. TICE,
Secretary Board of Public Schools, St Louis, Mo.

REPORT.

The president from a Select Committee, made a report, which was accepted, and after certain amendments, was adopted in the following form and ordered to be published:

The Committee to whom was referred the last quarterly report of the Superintendent of the Public Schools, would respectfully report that they have examined the same, and find three suggestions presented for their consideration:

In reference to the first, namely, the establishment of a High School, the Board, as early as June, 1843, adopted a system which it was intended should ultimately embrace a High School; but the state of your finances, and the demand for Primary and Grammar Schools have, as yet, prevented the completion of the system then adopted.

Your Committee believe that the time has now arrived when the income of the Public Schools and their wants and increased efficiency absolutely demand the establishment of a High School. The Board have authorized the teaching of algebra, geometry and natural philosophy; and in each of the Grammar Schools there are some few who are well qualified to enter upon the study of these branches, but all of whom, for the want of time on the part of teachers in some of the schools, have not been enabled to do so. In the other schools in which these subjects are taught the classes are small, and still to instruct them thoroughly, the tax upon the time of the teacher is disproportionate to the small number of scholars engaged in the prosecution of these branches of knowledge.

Your Committee believe that, were the studies pursued in the Grammar Schools restricted to spelling, reading, writing, mental and written arithmetic, geography, grammar and composition; and that, were those pupils whose attainments and mental training qualified them to enter upon the study of other and higher branches of knowledge, collected together in one building with the same corps of teachers, a far greater number of pupils could be better and more thoroughly taught. Thus would be brought together pupils possessing less diversity of attainments, and thus could be introduced a better classification, and consequently more time be given to the instruction of each class. Thus, moreover, would your teachers become more efficient, for their attention and energies being concentrated upon fewer branches of knowledge, they would thus be enabled to become more expert and skilful in teaching them.

The increased facilities afforded by the city improvements, and the many lines of omnibuses running in every direction through the city, render the present highly propitious for the establishment of a High School. Boys and girls who would be qualified to enter it, can now come from the extreme limits of the city with greater ease and less inconvenience than ten years ago they could go six squares. To come from the remotest boundaries of the city will now require no greater exercise than is absolutely demanded for health, of all who are actively and energetically engaged in the study of the higher branches of knowledge.

Your Committee are satisfied that annually numbers have left the

public schools, and gone forth into the world simply for the want of means and facilities to pursue other and higher branches of knowledge, than those authorized by the Board. They have left them at the most interesting and critical periods of their lives. They have left them when their tastes were beginning to be formed; when their thirst for knowledge had been but excited; when their mental and moral characters were but half developed; when they were best prepared to study, and just beginning to realize the profits, the pleasures, and the advantages of knowledge. They have been cast out simply because the longings of their minds could not be satisfied in the public schools.

Your Committee, moreover, believe that a large class in the community have neglected to patronize the public schools from a conviction that the instruction imparted by them was too limited in its range. Had they been satisfied that their children could have acquired in them that sole legacy which their parental hearts desired to leave them, viz., a good education, gladly would they have patronized them: but supposing that the instruction given in them was as indifferent in quality as it was limited in quantity, they have sent their children, at great expense, to other schools. The establishment of a High School would then tend to disabuse the public mind of the false estimate now placed upon the schools already organized, and thus secure for them what is most desirable, the abiding interest, sympathy and patronage of greater numbers of our citizens.

Moreover, the time is now favorable for the commencement of a High School, inasmuch as in a few weeks the La Fayette and Webster schools will be opened, and will then furnish accommodations for at least 600 additional grammar pupils.

Thus will be afforded ample accommodations for all scholars who may be displaced by the temporary appropriation of a part or the whole of any of the more central buildings for a High School: while the facility of access renders them convenient to all who may desire to attend. Moreover, citizens are daily removing from the business and the more closely built portions of the city, to find in less densely built parts their dwellings; so that these schools will, in a short time, be nearest to family residences, and the most convenient for attendance.

The Benton School House being the most central seems the most suitable for the temporary location of a High School. By vacating the female grammar department, and appropriating it temporarily for a mixed High School, accommodations would be obtained for 164 scholars. The 133 girls belonging, at the close of the last quarter, to the Benton Female Grammar School, could doubtless find seats in the Clark, Laclede, Jefferson and Mound Female Grammar Schools; in all of which, taken together, were at the above time 104 vacant seats.

But your Committee are satisfied, independent of all considerations connected with the establishment of a High School, that the character of the Eliot should be changed. As now organized it is an intermediate school, consisting of two departments, male and female, in both of which are taught branches that belong in part to the primary, and in part to the grammar school. By establishing in the lower part of the building a mixed *primary* school, and in the upper a female *grammar department*, your Committee believe that the condition of this

school would be greatly improved, and at the same time additional and more than sufficient accommodations would be provided for all pupils who may be displaced by the proposed change in the female grammar department of the Benton School.

Satisfied that the establishment of a High School cannot be longer deferred without great detriment to your Primary and Grammar Schools; that its partial organization is now feasible; that it is demanded to give completeness to the system already in operation; that it will be useful by the ever active stimulus which it will exercise upon your lower Schools; that it is required for equalizing the facilities for acquiring a good and thorough education, and that it is absolutely essential to enable your Schools to perform their true mission, and to become what they should be, the Educational Institutions of the City,—your Committee would propose and recommend the adoption of the following resolutions:

Resolved, That a High School be established; the course of instruction in which shall occupy four years, and comprise the following studies: Higher Arithmetic, English Analysis and Composition, History of the United States, Algebra, Geometry, Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, Surveying, including Navigation, Analytical Geometry, Natural Philosophy, Natural History, Mineralogy, Geology, Civil Engineering, Rhetoric, Mental Philosophy, Constitution of the United States, and the German, French, and Latin Languages.

Resolved, That after the close of the present quarter, one of the Grammar departments of the Benton School be changed into a Male and Female High School, to be under the charge of a Male Principal, with one Male Assistant for the present, and as many more as shall be found requisite.

Resolved, That to be admitted to the High School, the applicant shall be twelve years of age, shall have attended at least one scholastic year in one or more of the Public Grammar Schools, and shall have passed a satisfactory examination on spelling, reading, writing, mental and written arithmetic, geography and grammar.

Resolved, That written applications be received by the Superintendent, until the first of February next, for the situation of Principal of the High School, and persons applying be required to show that they have received a thorough, liberal and classical education, are professional teachers, and to furnish the necessary testimonials and evidence that they are qualified for the office.

Resolved, That the salary of the Principal of the High School be twelve hundred dollars per annum.

Resolved, That after the close of the present quarter, the studies in the Grammar School be restricted to spelling, reading, writing, mental and written arithmetic, geography, grammar, and English composition, history and algebra, in the schools of the First and Sixth Wards.

Resolved, That at the close of the present quarter, the Eliot Female Primary be changed into a Female Grammar department, and that the Male Primary of the same be changed into a Mixed Primary; and that the Superintendent be authorized to have the alterations in the *building and furniture*, necessary for this change, made.

Resolved, That a Special Committee be appointed to ascertain the

best site that can be obtained for a High School, and report on what terms the purchase can be made.

Resolved, with reference to the other two suggestions of the Superintendent, your Committee would recommend their adoption, and propose the following resolution.

Resolved, That the Principal of each school be required to send to parents or guardians, a monthly report of the attendance, absence, tardiness, general conduct, and character of visitations of each child, to be returned to the teacher, countersigned by the parents or guardian.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

GEORGE PARTRIDGE,
C. J. GREELEY,
CHAS. L. TUCKER. } Committee.

MASSACHUSETTS TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

[The following letter from Mr. Tenney, of Pittsfield, deserves a place in this number of the "Teacher," as it will correct a wrong impression which has gone abroad in regard to the Charter of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association. The error had its origin in the fact that neither the records nor the files of the Association show that an Act of Incorporation was ever obtained, although from the proceedings at a meeting of the Board of Directors, held at the Phillips School, Boston, January 14th, 1846, it appears that a Committee was appointed for the purpose:—]

ACT OF INCORPORATION.

AT the late meeting of the State Association at New Bedford, on my motion, the Board of Directors were instructed to apply to the State Legislature for an act incorporating the Association. This I did because I was told by one of the Board, and also by another member, older than myself, that this important measure had never been taken. Since then, I find, on looking over our first volume of Transactions, page 24, that similar instructions had been given before; and, on looking into the "Special Laws" of the State, vol. 8, p. 643, chap. 213, for the year 1846, it appears that the business was promptly and properly attended to.

It may be well to have the act published in the "Teacher," for information, and more convenient reference to the teachers of the State. For this purpose, I forward the following copy:—

"*An Act to Incorporate the Massachusetts Teachers' Association.*

"Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives, in General Court assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:—

"Sect. 1. Oliver Carlton, Samuel Swan, their associates and successors, *are hereby* made a Corporation, by the name of *the Massachusetts Teachers'* Association, with all the powers

and privileges, and subject to all the duties, liabilities, and restrictions, set forth in the Forty-fourth chapter of the Revised Statutes; and said Corporation may hold real and personal estate to the amount of twenty thousand dollars, to be devoted exclusively to the promotion of the interests of education, and the improvement of the qualifications of Teachers.

"Sect. 2. This act shall take effect from and after its passage."

Passed, April 10, 1846.

Berkshire. J. T.

CORRECTION.—On page 21 of the January number it is stated that Messrs. Reed, Bates, &c., were appointed a committee to report on the pecuniary sacrifices of those who, in past years, conducted the "Teacher." It should read, so that Mr. Bates shall be constituted the Chairman of the Committee. Also, on the 22d page, instead of "the Board of Editors" were appointed a Committee, &c., it should read "the Board of Directors."

PRIZE CIRCULAR OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE.

THE American Institute of Instruction offer to members of the Institute and to female teachers, prizes for Original Essays on the following subjects:

1. "The means of producing a Symmetrical Development of the Mental Faculties."

2. By what means can the Teacher best advance his own Culture?

To the best Essay on *either* of these subjects, a prize of *Twenty-Five Dollars* will be awarded; to the best on the *other* subject, a prize of *Fifteen Dollars*. An additional prize of *Ten Dollars* is offered for the best Essay on any other subject having a practical relation to teaching. Each Essay should be distinguished by some motto or device, and accompanied by a sealed envelope bearing the same motto or device, and enclosing the real address of the author.

The Essays must be forwarded by the 1st of June, to the subscriber, *Central Place*, BOSTON, who will place them in the hands of the Committee. The award will be made known, and the successful Essays read, at the next annual meeting of the Institute in August. They will also be regarded as the property of the Society. The unsuccessful Essays, if applied for, will be returned to their authors with the envelopes unopened. If no composition of sufficient merit should be offered, no prize *will be awarded.*

In behalf of the Directors,

Boston, Jan. 15, 1853. SOLOMON ADAMS.

THE

MASSACHUSETTS TEACHER.

Vol. VI. No. 3.] E. S. STEARNS, Editor of this Number. [March, 1853.

ADDRESS

At the Dedication of the High School in Dorchester, Dec. 7, 1852.

BY REV. N. HALL.

Friends and Fellow-citizens :

It seemed good to the School Committee—into whose charge this building has now passed—that before it should be appropriated to its destined use, its existence and purpose should be finally recognized by some public services ; that, in obedience to ancient custom, and in view of that custom's intrinsic fitness, with the voice of prayer and sacred song, we should commend it and its objects to the favor of *Him*, the Source of all intelligence, the Author of all blessing—*Him*, whose gift it is, with all the instrumentalities and privileges connected with it.

We are here, then, to set apart, to devote, to dedicate a new structure for the purposes of public education. Apart from any circumstances of a local character, an interest attaches to the simple fact we thus express. Might we suppose ourselves in some other county, some other State, some other country than in our own, the simple fact that there, wherever it might be, we were standing within a new structure to be devoted to the public education of children and youth,—this fact alone, rightly considered, would have a commanding interest for us. Consider what the human mind is ; consider what education proposes to do for it ; consider the important relations which the young sustain to all existing institutions and interests ; consider the influence *they are necessarily* to exert, for good or evil, upon *their own and succeeding* times, and you will not need to ask

where and in what that interest lies. In each additional structure, rising no matter where upon the earth's broad surface, for the intellectual and moral training of the young, the philanthropist sees new cause for rejoicing, new grounds for hope ; sees another battery opened against the hosts of Error, another fountain of restoration for diseased humanity. How enhanced that interest, if such structure rise within one's own land, and considerations of patriotism as well as of philanthropy connect themselves with it. How yet more, if within one's own community, neighborhood, town—if our own children are to be the direct partakers of its benefits, if from our own homes its seats are to be peopled.

But over and above what these considerations give, is the interest which attaches to *this* occasion. It is not merely the erection of an additional school-building that we celebrate to-day, but the establishment among us of a new grade of school. We behold, to-day, the worthy completion of our system of public school instruction ; our educational pyramid capped and crowned. What many of us have so long looked for, has indeed come. The vision has grown into a reality. Dorchester has been true to herself, her pilgrim founders, her honored name, in the noble offering she this day makes to her aspiring youth, of the facilities, to be here enjoyed, for an advanced education. Much had she done before for this great interest of education. But need was there she should do more : for her children's sake, her honor's sake, her material interest's sake, that she should do just this which she has done. We will not cast reproaches upon her for what might have been, after all, a wise delay. We will honor her, that when she saw the time had come, the word was given, and the work was done. No reproaches will we breathe to-day, but congratulations only.

The school to be gathered within these walls we call a High School, and perhaps I could not better occupy the remainder of the brief space allotted me in these exercises, than in speaking of some of the advantages and ends of that higher education which such an institution is intended to afford.

Our idea of the worth of education is likely to be a low and superficial one. The tendencies of our common life incline us to it. We are prone to measure its advantage, as that of other things, by a utilitarian standard. We calculate its worth by what it will bring of outward, palpable profit. A boy goes to school —for what ? " Why, what should he go for," (is the common thought) " but to learn to read and spell, and write and cipher —by all means to *cipher ?*" And *why* to learn these ? " Why, simply because they will be needed, you know, in his trade, *his calling, his* occupation. He would be less likely to get on *the world* without them." Good reasons these, undeniably,

so far as they go. Or, if other branches are admitted to be important, or, at least, "well enough;" if grammar and geography, and history, and composition, and the higher branches of mathematics, are allowed as useful—useful for *what?* "Why, they will enable him to occupy a more lucrative, or a more elevated and respectable position in life; they will gain for him a larger share of property, or at least of social consideration, than he would be likely otherwise to possess. Who knows what emoluments or honors my son may arrive at, if he but have the qualifying education? Who knows what a famous matrimonial alliance my daughter may make, with no hindrance existing of illiterateness? At any rate, my children are smart by nature, and I should like to have them get the credit of it, and get their parents credit, by standing among the foremost in the school." And so of the High School, we hear it asked,—"Of what *use* is it? Of what use, at any rate, to *my* children, to study these higher branches? They are not to go to college, nor to a counting-room, nor to be teachers. They can get more learning than they need—more than will ever be of any use to them—in the schools they attend now."

Now, we might meet this lowest view of education on its own ground. We might show that on the score of profit, in the most worldly sense, it may be well for a child to receive the higher instruction to be here dispensed; that even soundest learning may possibly have issues in dollars and cents. And we might show that by aiming at the useful, too, directly and exclusively—the immediately and tangibly useful—we go wider from it than if our aim were higher.

There are two kinds of advantage derivable from all school education. The one kind, a certain amount of knowledge—knowledge of words, of facts, of subjects, of processes; the other, a quickening and sharpening and strengthening of the powers and faculties of the mind—in other words, mental discipline—as a result of the process by which that knowledge is acquired. The former is a possession of uncertain tenure; the latter is a permanent, because an inwrought one. The former may result in no calculable profit; the latter can hardly fail of such result. Those mental habits induced by the demands and processes of the higher courses of study, the general activity and dexterity of the faculties thus acquired, and the power to concentrate and to use them—do we not see how all this may be made available for other ends than those of study; for other acquisitions than those of learning; other spheres than that of literature? You have not proved the inutility of studying the higher branches of knowledge, by pointing to this and that individual, or any number of them, who were proficients in those *branches in their school-days*, or their college-days, and are

now greatly ignorant of them. Suppose it to be so. Suppose that a boy's or a girl's knowledge of the languages, for instance, should have died away from the mind of the man or the woman. It is a pity it ever should be so. But suppose it to be, as doubtless it often is; see if they be no stronger-minded men and women; if they have no better command of their mental faculties; no more power of pursuing a train of thought; of conducting or following a course of reasoning; no more ability of attention, abstraction, concentration—and with these no greater chances of *success*, in the paths of life that are open to them, for having been subjected to the training and discipline involved and necessitated by those early studies.

But, to look at the subject from a somewhat different point of view, though still, in a sense, the utilitarian: success in life is not everything—mere worldly success—the getting of money, office, honor, repute. Who believe it? not they who practically affirm it. They believe it not in the experience, if they do in the anticipation. Success in life is not everything. Happiness is more than success—and by no means are they identical. Usefulness is more; the true enjoyment of life, the true use of life. And these studies and that learning which serve to widen the mind's vision and expand its powers; which bring it into acquaintance with new fields of knowledge, and enable it to traverse and explore them with ever new acquisitions and ever fresh delight; which open to its intelligent success the great world of nature, with its manifold kingdoms and dependences—making the old earth full of life and interest and instruction, instead of being a comparatively dull and indifferent place—giving to its every star and plant and gem and stone a language and a meaning; which open to it the great volume of History—the shadowy aisles of the past, and the vast procession of events that have swept through them, from the beginning until now; which open to it the glittering stores of human literature, with the power to appreciate and relish and enjoy;—the studies and acquisitions of early life which do all this, or any part of it, and thus serve to make the whole of life happier and more useful, in addition to its inferior pleasures and satisfactions, allowing of those choicer and never-failing ones; or, in the absence of the former, going far to supply the want of them, sending a strain of refining melody through the rough jarrings of our common life, and casting a ray of golden sunshine upon its clouds; making its intervals of active exertion more welcome, its seasons of physical weakness and disability more endurable, by the rich resources always on hand wherewith to occupy them;—those studies and acquisitions, I say, which lead to and *secure results like* these, must needs be ranked among the ap*plauded utilities;* must have accorded them, as such, no trifling *value and importance.*

But I have not yet touched upon that class of considerations which involve the highest advantages of an advanced education. They are those, of course, that relate to the moral sentiments and spiritual faculties. The best education of the intellect does not, we know, necessarily quicken and develop these. But, certainly, they are more likely to be quickened and developed with a true education of the mental powers, with large accumulations of general knowledge, than without them. All truth is related to the highest truth. All learning, by serving to refine the taste, to elevate and liberalize the general tone and tendency of thought, prepares for, if it do not find—it increases, if it find—an awakened and healthy state of the moral and religious sentiments and sensibilities. The soul that is in us is one and indivisible. An essential portion of it is mind, intellect, the faculties and capacities whose combination we thus express. The unfolding and expansion of these must, so far, lead on to and prepare for the unfolding and expansion of the whole spiritual being. Knowledge must ever be the friend of Religion, as Ignorance has ever been its foe. She must needs be its friend: —for she shows in every fact and object and process of nature, in all the connections and bearings of things, in all the scenes and events of the past, a something higher and diviner than man —a designing Hand, a shaping Power, a heavenly Providence. On every path she stands, pointing, though it be unobtrusively and silently, to the skies.

No need, do we say, of education, save so much only as may be necessary to feed and clothe and shelter us here—poorly or sumptuously, or to gather a few fading blossoms of human applause, to wear proudly upon our brows, or have cast upon our graves? And do we say it in the knowledge that the subject of education is the immortal *mind*—fresh from the all-inspiring Spirit—a portion of his own intelligence? "No need of education!" Why what has it come into existence for but to be educated? What a wrong we do to it, and what an ungrateful slighting of the Giver and the gift, when we make of this glorious mind merely an instrument and tool for the subserving the pure purposes of a physical and earthly existence; when we flout the idea of any thing beyond this as desirable—and thus shut out of view the great facts belonging to its life and destiny!

No. Let me say to every parent, and to every child,—Never can you regret, in a just view of things, any culture bestowed upon the mind; any efforts to augment its stores, to enlarge its capacities, to invigorate its powers. Be assured, *it will all pay.* Sooner or later, yes, immediately, not, perhaps, calculably, *by any sordid estimate*, but really and surely, it will *ALL pay. Doubtless, there* is discretion to be used as regards

the choice of studies for the young—a discretion having in view, to a certain extent, their probable condition and calling in life. I mean only to say, that that is a short-sighted and most unworthy view of the subject, which regards every thing as useless that has not a practical and material advantage, that is not essential to, or promotive of, the inferior interests of this outward and earthly life.

And now, let us dedicate this building to its high and sacred ends—the ends of useful knowledge, of good learning, of mental discipline, of true morality; to the well-being of society and to the glory of God. Hither, year by year, may our children come, from the lower, but no less important schools, fitted for the tasks of this! And thither, year by year, may our children go, better fitted, by the studies and influences of the place, for the awaiting tasks of the great School of Life!

ROGER ASCHAM.

In the year of our Lord fifteen hundred and fifteen, whilst Leo X yet sat in splendor and fancied security in the stout old chair of St. Peter, and Tetzel was making lucky souls spring at a leap from the woes of Purgatory to the joys of Heaven, "for a consideration,"—whilst Doctor Martin Luther, in his gloomy cell, was still pondering these things in his vexed bosom,—whilst Henry VIII ruled "Merry England" with iron sway, and pious Edward, bloody Mary, virgin Elizabeth, and sweet, innocent Jane Grey, with a host of others, soon to appear on the busy stage, lived only in the decrees of Heaven,—whilst Cooke, Cheke, Bond, Haddon, Buchanan, Udal, Smith, and many more, renowned as well for their skill in training youth and teaching them, as for their literary attainments, cherished and augmented the just reënkindled fire of a learning destined to bless the world with its resplendent life-giving light,—the ancient family of Scroope, at Kirby-Wiske, in Yorkshire, were gladdened, one bright morning, by the announcement that Ascham, the respected house steward, had just been enabled to enroll a third name on the list of sons, who were to hand his own lineaments and characteristics, a little embellished it may be, or revised and corrected perhaps, down to posterity.

At an early age, young Roger, for so they called him, was placed in the family of Sir Anthony Wingfield, and entrusted to the instruction of Bond, the family tutor. So wisely did he *profit by* his advantages here, that in 1530 he was transferred to *St. John's College*, Cambridge, whence he "proceeded Bachelor" *in 1534*. Directly after, he was chosen "Fellow of his

College," which made him independent of the bounty of his generous patron Wingfield, and gave him opportunity to pursue his studies according to his own tastes. Some boyish imprudences, however, well nigh prevented him from securing this important position. His own account of the affair is this: "And being a Boy, new Bachelour of Arts, I chanced among my Companions to speak against the Pope; which matter was then in every Man's Mouth, because Dr. Hains and Dr. Skip were come from the Court to debate the same Matter by Preaching and Disputation in the University. This happened the same Time when I stood to be a Fellow there. My Talk came to Dr. Medcalfe's Ear; I was called before him and the Seniors; and after grievous Rebuke and some Punishment, open Warning was given to all the Fellows, none to be so hardy as to give me his Voice at that Election. And yet for all those open Threats, the good Father (Dr. Medcalfe) privily procured that I should even then be chosen Fellow; but the Election being done, he made Countenance of great Displeasure thereat. This good man's Goodness and fatherly Discretion used towards me that one Day, shall never out of my Remembrance all the Days of my Life,—for next God's providence, surely that Day was by that good Father's means *Dies natalis* to me, for the whole Foundation of the poor Learning I have, and of all the Fatherance that hitherto elsewhere I have obtained." In 1537 he took his second degree, and immediately began his career as a teacher.

Ascham's love of teaching seems to have developed itself almost as early as did his taste for study. It is said that even before he entered college, whilst a mere boy, he was accustomed to gather his schoolmates around him, and teach them and lecture to them after the manner of the universities. The *spirit* of the teacher was *in him*, and would not be repressed; for *true* educators, though they may be immensely benefited by training and culture, like true poets, are *born to the work!* At the age of twenty-one years, Roger Ascham began to teach in good earnest, and his success was such as to enable him to send forth from under his instruction many who became almost immediately eminent as scholars or as statesmen. Among the former was Grindal, one of the earliest of Queen Elizabeth's private tutors, and whom he himself afterwards succeeded in this responsible office.

About this time, King Henry had become singularly enamored of the practice of *archery*, and whilst the fit was on him, endeavored to cultivate a taste for exercises with the bow. Ascham, though immersed in Greek and Latin, and heartily devoted to the labors of the school and lecture room, seems to have found manly exercises *not inconsistent* with his dignity as a teacher, or with a *proper economy of time;* indeed, one might half suspect him of

an opinion, that the development and health of body, beauty of form, and grace of manner, such exercise would be likely to give him, would make him quite as successful in study, and acceptable as a teacher, as would a pale face, a spare form, and the awkwardness of the clown. It is said that there were even in those early times many to be found who held, practically, at least, as multitudes do in these days of light and wisdom, that laughter is for rude children, jokes for fools, and manly sports for rough boys, or wild young men. Alas for *gentlemen*, and for the whole female sex! These sensitive ones were shocked that tutor Ascham should be guilty of archery, and so seriously upbraided him for his conduct that he felt constrained to write and publish a treatise on archery, by way of personal defence. It was called "Toxophilus," and is still extant. "Bluff Harry" liked it—it was just the thing for him, and he rewarded our archer with a pension of ten pounds a year, a sum then worth very much more than at the present time.

Ascham's notions respecting physical exercises are best given by himself. He has been insisting upon the importance of hard study, as essential to the rank and character of gentleman:

"And I do not mean by all this my Talk that young Gentlemen should always be poring on a Book, and by using good Studies, should lose honest Pleasure, and haunt no good Pastime; I mean nothing less. For it is well known that I both like and love, and have always, and do yet still use all Exercises and Pastimes that be fit for my Nature and Ability: And beside natural Disposition, in Judgment also I was never, either Stoick in Doctrin, or Anabaptist in Religion, to mislike a merry, pleasant, and playful Nature, if no Outrage be committed against Law, Measure, and good Order."

"Therefore I would wish, that beside some good Time fitly appointed and constantly kept, to increase by reading the knowledge of the Tongues, and Learning; young Gentlemen should use, and delight in all courtly Exercises, and gentleman-like Pastimes. And good Cause why; For the self same noble City of Athens, justly commended of me before, did wisely, and upon great Consideration, appoint the Muses, Apollo and Pallas, to be Patrons of Learning to their Youth. For the Muses, besides Learning, were also Ladies of Dancing, Mirth, and Minstrelsy; Apollo was God of Shooting, and Author of cunning playing upon Instruments; Pallas also was Lady Mistress in Wars. Whereby nothing else was meant, but that Learning should be always mingled with honest Mirth, and comely Exercises; and that War also should be governed by Learning, and moderated by Wisdom; as did well appear in *those Captains of* Athens named by me before, and also Scipio *and Cæsar, the* two Diamonds of Rome. And Pallas was no

more feared in wearing Ægida, than she was praised for chusing Olivam; whereby shineth the Glory of Learning, which thus was Governour and Mistress in the noble City of Athens, both of War and Peace."

"Therefore to ride comely, to run fair at the Tilt, or Ring; to play at all Weapons, to shoot fair in Bow, or surely in Gun; to vault lustily, to run, to leap, to wrestle, to swim; to dance comely, to sing, and play on Instruments cunningly; to hawk, to hunt; to play at Tennis, and all Pastimes generally, which be joined with Labor, used in open Place, and on the Day Light, containing some fit exercise for War, or some pleasant Pastime for Peace, be not only comely and decent, but also very necessary for a courtly Gentleman to use."

"But of all kinds of Pastimes fit for a gentleman, I will, God willing, in fitter Place more at large declare fully, *in my Book of the Cockpit;* which I do write to satisfy some, I trust with some Reason, that be more curious in marking other Men's Doings, than careful in mending their own Faults. And some will also needs busy themselves in marvelling, and adding thereunto unfriendly Talk, why I, a man of good Years, and of no ill Place, I thank God and my Prince, do make choice to spend such Time in writing of Trifles, *as the School of Shooting, the Cockpit, and this Book of the first Principles of Grammar*, rather than to take some weighty Matter in hand, either of Religion or Civil Discipline."

"Wise men I know, will well allow of my Choice herein; and as for such who have not Wit of themselves, but must learn of others to judge right of Men's Doings, let them read that wise Poet *Horace* in his *Arte Poetica*, who willeth men to beware of high and lofty Titles."

Immediately after this, Ascham was appointed "University Orator," in which office he composed and wrote all the official letters of the king and the royal family. He also taught writing, like any writing-master, to Elizabeth, Edward, &c. In 1548, he was appointed private tutor to Elizabeth, and discharged his duties with such success as not only to satisfy his royal pupil, but also to add much to his already great reputation as a teacher. "But at length, on account of some ill-judged and ill-founded whispers, Ascham took such a distaste to some persons in the Lady Elizabeth's family, that he left her a little abruptly." Dr. Johnson says, "Of this precipitation he long repented, and as those who are unaccustomed to disrespect cannot easily forgive it, he probably felt the effects of his imprudence to his death." Another writer says, "He took great and not unsuccessful pains to be restored to her good graces." During the next ten years we find him again at the University, pursuing his accustomed duties. In the year 1550, whilst on a visit to

some relatives in Yorkshire, he received the honorable appointmen of secretary to Sir Robert Morysine, ambassador to the Emperor, Charles V. On his return to London, he visited Lady Jane Grey at her father's house in Leicestershire. The affecting particulars of this memorable interview he has recorded in his "Schoolmaster," a work of which more anon.

Ascham was absent from his native country three years, during which he travelled over the most of Germany, Italy, and the south of Europe. Whilst with Sir Robert he is said not only to have rendered him the ordinary services of secretary, but also to have acted towards him the part of private tutor in classical studies. For four days in the week, he explained three or four pages of Herodotus every morning, and more than two hundred lines of Sophocles or Euripides every afternoon. He also read with him the orations of Demosthenes. On the other three days, he copied letters and performed other duties of his office as secretary. His private letters, diary, &c., &c., were written at night.

In the year 1552, Ascham was appointed Latin Secretary to the pious young monarch, Edward, who had just ascended the throne; but the death of the king occurring soon after, he again retired to the classic shades of his loved university. He was reappointed, however, under Mary, and though a Protestant, received great consideration. On the death of Mary, in 1558, and the accession of his old friend Lady Elizabeth, with whom his quarrel had long ago been made up, he was confirmed in his office of Latin Secretary, and appointed private tutor to her majesty.

In the year 1563, whilst at court, a dinner-table conversation with Sir William Cecill and others, respecting severity of discipline in colleges, &c., gave origin to a work on education and discipline, which, though completed by its author, was not given to the world until after his death. It was entitled "THE SHOOLMASTER, or a plain and perfect Way of teaching Children to understand, write, and speak the Latin Tongue."

But the death of our accomplished teacher was at hand. Incessant study, with too little regard for refreshment to body and mind in sleep, had made him old before his time. A hectic disease seized upon him, and, as if to avenge herself for his disregard of one of her most obvious and necessary laws, Nature now began to deny to him that sleep which he had so often treated with neglect. His strength became rapidly enfeebled, and it was soon evident that the hand of death was on him. The year was drawing to a close, and though he must have known that he would not long survive its termination, he could not refrain from girding up his sinking powers for a last literary effort. He accordingly commenced a Latin poem, with which

he intended to greet his loved pupil-sovereign, on the morning of the new year. With aching head and fevered pulse, he toiled by night as well as by day; and perhaps with all the greater earnestness, as his eye grew dim, and the once ready pen trembled in his unsteady hand,—but in vain. On the 23d of December his disease assumed a new and more decisive appearance; and after seven days more of pain and disappointment, on the 30th of December, 1568, at the age of 53 years, he died.

The death of Ascham was scarcely more deeply felt by his "widow and great sort of orphans," than by his Queen and the Court. Elizabeth, when she received the intelligence that her loved and revered tutor was no more, is said to have exclaimed, "I would rather have thrown ten thousand pounds into the sea, than to have lost my Ascham!" It was, to be sure, a somewhat singular exhibition of grief, and yet none familiar with the character of this truly great personage will, for a moment, doubt the genuineness and intensity of her sorrow.

So died one of the wisest, most learned, noblest men the world has ever seen. His greatness was abundantly acknowledged and admired by the most distinguished men of that remarkable period, and "England's greatest sovereign" felt honored to "sit at his feet." HE WAS A TEACHER, and it was mainly as *such* that he won for himself laurels which will brighten with perennial beauty to the end of time. It is good for us, TEACHERS, to sit down sometimes and contemplate a character and achievements like his. It is well to call to mind the illustrious ones who have trodden the same paths which we now tread, long ago; to suffer our ambition to be enkindled by reflecting upon their successful labors. It is useful to study their words and their deeds, and to discover the secret which gave them so high distinction. It will serve to create a more just appreciation of the excellence of our profession, and to ensure for it a more appropriate respect, when we dwell upon the memories of the long succession of great ones, from Socrates down, who have adorned our avocation. Then we shall not speak of our "humble work" nor envy the Law, Medicine or Divinity, their illustrious names. In Ascham's own words, "Yet some men, friendly enough of Nature, but of small judgment in learning, do think I take too much pains and spend too much time, in setting forth these children's affairs. But those good men were never brought up in Socrates' school, who saith plainly, 'That no man goeth about a more goodly Purpose, than he that is mindful of the good bringing up both of his own and other Men's Children.'

"Therefore, I trust, good and wise men will think well of this my doing, and of others that think otherwise, I will think myself, they are but men, to be pardoned for their Folly, and pitied for their Ignorance."

At some future opportunity, a more extended account of that now exceedingly rare and invaluable work, "The Schoolmaster," may be given.

HIDDEN NOOK, Jan. 20, 1853.

MY DEAR EDITOR:—"Hard pushed for copy" you must have been, when you asked an "outsider" like myself, neither a committee-man, nor a schoolmaster, nor directly connected in any way, except as its hearty friend and well-wisher, with the "cause of education," to contribute to your pages. What have I to say worth reading? what experiences to detail, what advice to give, what improvements to suggest? The best I can do is to express a sincere sympathy with you and your fellow-laborers. A word or two of respect and encouragement, therefore, shall be the hasty fulfilment of a promise rashly made in answer to the request of old friendship. The title of your journal gives the hint; and so I speak of the MASSACHUSETTS TEACHER.

He has a grand and solemn vocation; let him magnify it and discharge it under a sense of the responsibleness belonging to his privileges. Dr. Channing did not exaggerate much, if at all, when he said, "there is no office higher than that of a teacher of youth;"—and nowhere in the world can this office be made so great and influential as in our ancient "Commonwealth,"—the birthplace and homestead of popular education. School-houses are the spring-heads of influence, that become broad and wide-spreading streams; and so he who works within them, works at the sources of power, where every touch is felt and no effort is wasted. The imagination must be exercised to reach this fact in all its fulness and comprehensiveness. To superficial sight it may look like a small affair,—a room filled with threescore, more or less, of boys and girls, and a pedagogue drilling them, day after day, in the alphabet and first sentences of that book of knowledge which has no "Finis." But the meditation that penetrates into the heart of a thing, and traces its relations, and sees in the acorn the future gigantic oak, soon discovers that this judgment according to appearances is not righteous judgment. As well despise the bubbling fountain-heads far away in secluded mountain regions, trickling together into the streamlets that combine into rivers, spread out into lakes, afterwards to be narrowed into the irresistible force and terrible beauty of Niagara—as well despise the thread-like beams or the tiny waves of light, that are woven together or *undulate in unison* to bathe the earth in sunshine,—as despise *the humblest* school-house where is unsealed and set in motion

the intelligence of generations. The teacher must think of this daily, hourly, if he would keep his purpose high, and feel the real elevation of his post, the animating pressure of his obligations. A profound respect for his noble calling, whose possible efficiency he cannot measure, should induce him to regard it, and win others to regard it, as a "profession," second to no other profession,—not a mere help to something above it, or a work he may be only half in earnest about, until he can find one better or more profitable. If he has the requisite tastes and talents and natural gifts, he already occupies no mean centre of power, —is in a sphere which is wide enough for the exercise of his whole soul.

Starting with, and keeping fresh and living, this conception of his office will enable the teacher to cause its dignity and importance to be esteemed in the community, according to its just deserts. I say, will enable the teacher, because he must mainly accomplish this end. He has done a good deal towards it already. Conventions, institutes, journals, are witnesses that the schoolmaster stands higher, enjoys more consideration, and exerts more influence, than he once did;—that among our free institutions, and where the entire people need knowledge, he is a more eminent person than formerly. With the increasing conviction of the importance of education, there has been a corresponding increasing conviction of the high social rank of the educator. Here, then, is a call which the Massachusetts Teacher should endeavor to meet. How?

The answer, in general terms, is, by the most thorough and comprehensive self-culture and development. His preparation for his special work is to make himself a man, an entire and genuine man. The day has gone by for mechanical instruction. Automata are no longer wanted in the school-room; but *men*, men of ability, men of acquirement, men of enlarged, philosophical, disciplined, and balanced minds, who teach according to principles, and not merely according to rules, who make their own system, or rather act out their own spirit, and do not move round as the blind mill-horse, in a beaten path. Tact, manner, invention, all the resources and faculties of an educated,—using the word in its true sense,—gentleman,—using *that* word, also, in its true sense,—should characterize the Massachusetts Teacher. He should have, too, literary skill, be an easy speaker, apt at illustration, stored with the special learning he needs, and furnished, also, with general knowledge; and, of course, he should be well paid, and left to do his duty in his own way, because he proves himself able to devise and execute the right way.

I sympathize with the schoolmaster's sensitiveness at the dictation, petty supervision, perhaps meddlesomeness of theoretical gentlemen on the "Committee" in the lecture room or

elsewhere. But the method of getting rid of this interference, supervision, or whatever you may please to call it, is to rise above it and put it down by superior attainments. The ablest teachers are the least troubled by it. But as a matter of fact, it has been true,—possibly it may be true now,—that persons who never, rod in hand, taught a single young idea how to shoot, have really understood the philosophy of teaching much better than those who grew gray in the school-room. It used to be said, with some irreverence and too much truth, that "catch a minister out of the pulpit and you catch a fool." The Massachusetts teacher must be careful that no similar proverb applies to him. He is in danger,—every profession has its peculiar perils,—he is in danger of living within a contracted circle, of being pedantic, narrow, literal and mechanical, of going to his business as a daily task merely, of letting a fine enthusiasm cool down, and the ambition to be every way as much of a scholar, thinker, vigorous-minded, and large-hearted man as he can die out. He is in danger of this: though the danger grows less and less every day, and he is honorably deserving and bravely taking the lofty position he must ultimately fill in the social economy. Let the encouraging word to him be "I pede fausto."

You perceive, my friend, that I have been indulging in a hasty sketch of the Massachusetts teacher, somewhat translated into the ideal, with the stature he may have in the "good time coming," or the perfection of beauty that will be his in the millennium: for I take it, the millennium will be no millennium at all, unless it has room for growth and opportunities for usefulness. Rememberest thou the saying about aiming at the Sun? Well, find in that the kindly-meant and animating moral of my scribbling. Believe it is entirely from respect and love for the Massachusetts teacher, that the desire to see him lifting himself up and "magnifying his office" comes.

One thing more. The exigences of style, and the avoidance of clumsy periphrases, have necessitated the use of the masculine gender. But of course my remarks are meant to include that element recently introduced into the system of instruction, to which we are to look for a larger and lovelier presence of grace, gentleness, delicacy of imagination, patience, and other bright and winning virtues, which will relieve by their smile the severity, and by their poetry the prose, of the school-room. The hill of science may have granite for its basis, but to attract climbers there must be flowers to line its steep paths, verdure on its precipices, and sunshine illuminating its dark ravines. Yours, &c.,

SENEX.

WEBSTER'S LEGACY TO SCHOOL TEACHERS.

WHEN the great and good die, Nobility bows its head in sorrow, and Virtue covers herself with garments of mourning. Then it is that every soul accustomed to aspire—that every heart whose life stream is propelled by conscious longing after excellence, feels a shock which prostrates, paralyzes and overwhelms. All are in grief, all lament and say, "How are the mighty fallen!" Every one bewails the public calamity as his private loss.

And now that the violence of the shock occasioned by Webster's death is passed, and we begin to take heart again, Sorrow, Affection and Reverence are abroad amongst men, not that they may be seen of them, but to gather up and cherish with miser care the simplest words, the most trifling deeds of him they delight to honor, and garland his tomb with these deathless flowers. In the "great lamentation" school teachers of every grade—character-builders of the country, have borne their part; and they have wept, though tears of joy and pride have chastened their sorrow, as Death brought forth the cap-stone of the mighty temple, whose foundations they laid, amidst angel-shouts of "Grace, grace, unto it." Himself a humble school-boy—himself a school teacher, humbler still it may be, we seek for *our* memorials; and though we well might be content to behold the grandeur of the work, there yet remains that, which in grief is never satisfied, the longing for tokens of our own nearness to the heart, of remembrance and appreciation, and we ask with earnestness, Has he "died and made no sign" for *us?* The answer is ready and satisfying.

It was in Faneuil Hall, which has so often echoed to his eloquence. The beauty and fashion of the city were on one hand; the people, "without distinction of party," were densely crowded before him; and on his right were the venerated clergy, five hundred or more, representing every State and Territory, and one of the largest Christian denominations in the United States, who thought it no sin to lay aside for an hour the sacred work of the Church which had called them together, that they might witness God's noblest work, most nobly displayed. There he stood, the hand of disease manifestly pressing sorely upon him, his wasting strength collected for that last effort he would ever make on that sacred, familiar spot. There he stood, and turning his last regards on his country's dearest interest, left *us* a precious legacy in this dying sentiment:

"We seek to educate the people. We seek to improve men's moral and religious condition. In short, we seek to work upon mind as well as on matter. And, in working on mind, it

enlarges the human intellect and the human heart. We know when we work upon materials immortal and imperishable, that they will bear the impress which we place upon them through endless ages to come. If we work upon marble, it will perish; if we work upon brass, time will efface it. If we rear temples, they will crumble to the dust. But IF WE WORK ON MEN'S IMMORTAL MINDS, IF WE IMBUE THEM WITH HIGH PRINCIPLES, WITH THE JUST FEAR OF GOD, AND OF THEIR FELLOW-MEN, WE ENGRAVE ON THOSE TABLETS SOMETHING WHICH NO TIME CAN EFFACE, BUT WHICH WILL BRIGHTEN AND BRIGHTEN TO ALL ETERNITY."

He that hath ears to hear, let him hear!

REMARKS ON THE ANGLO-SAXON LANGUAGE.

No. III.

[*Continued from page* 51.]

The Pronoun.—The English language has retained very nearly the forms and accidents of the Anglo-Saxon pronouns; as, Ic, *I;* thu, *thou;* he, *he;* heo, *she;* hit, *it;* and their plurals, we, ge, hi, *we, ye, they:* two dual forms, wit and git, *we two* and *you two,* we have not preserved.

The following are some of the Numerals:

1	an	11	endlufon
2	twa	12	twelf
3	thrý	13	threottyne
4	feower	20	twentig
5	fif	70	hund-seofontig
6	six	80	hund-eahtatig
7	seofon	100	hund-teontig *or* hund
8	eahta	110	hund-enlufontig
9	nigon	120	hund-twelftig
10	tyn	1000	thusend

The English names of numbers up to a million are derived from the Anglo-Saxon. It will be seen that the anomalous forms *eleven* and *twelve* (which, in the Anglo-Saxon, are compounded of an and twa, with lifan, *to leave,*) are found in that language, and also a peculiar nomenclature for the numbers from 70 to 120. This arises from an old practice of counting by *twelves* as well as by *tens:* the series, twentig, 20, thrittig, 30, continued to 60, when another commenced, distinguished by the prefix hund, which continued to 120. The original meaning of hund was ten, but it was afterwards extended to ten times ten.

The Verb.—Nearly all the verbs terminate in *an* or *ian.*

They have four Modes: the Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive. The Tenses are but two: the Indefinite and Perfect. The former has reference either to Present or to Future time, and the latter to any past time. The Infinitive is never preceded by *to*, as in English, but this preposition is always prefixed to the Gerund, a part of the Verb combining the nature of the Noun and Verb, as the Participle does those of the Verb and Adjective. Nor are there, properly speaking, any Auxiliary Verbs, and consequently no compound tenses or Passive Voice.

The following is the conjugation of the Verb Lufian, *to love:*

INDICATIVE MODE.—INDEFINITE TENSE.

Ic lufige	*I love*	we lufiath	*we love*
thu lufast	*thou lovest*	ge lufiath	*ye love*
he lufath	*he loves*	hi lufiath	*they love*

PERFECT TENSE.

Ic lufode	*I loved*	we lufodon	*we loved*
thu lufodest	*thou lovedst*	ge lufodon	*ye loved*
he lufode	*he loved*	hi lufodon	*they loved*

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.—INDEFINITE TENSE.

Ic lufige (*if*)	*I love*	we lufion	*we love*
thu lufige	*thou love*	ge lufion	*ye love*
he lufige	*he love*	hi lufion	*they love*

PERFECT TENSE.

Ic lufode (*if*)	*I loved*	we lufodon	*we loved*
thu lufode	*thou loved*	ge lufodon	*ye loved*
he lufode	*he loved*	hi lufodon	*they loved*

IMPERATIVE MODE.

lufa thu	*love thou*	lufiath ge	*love ye*

INFINITIVE MODE.

lufian *to love*

PARTICIPLES.

Indef. lufigende, *loving.* Perf. lufod, *loved.*

GERUND.

to lufigenne *to love, about to love*

There are three verbs answering in signification to the English verb *to be:* beon, wesan, and weorthan: our verb *to be* is a compound of the first two of these.

As the indeclinable parts of speech present no special peculiarities, it is not necessary to remark upon them.

Y. Y.

A COMPLETE SYSTEM OF PUBLIC EDUCATION.

A LECTURE,

DELIVERED BEFORE THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF ARTS AND SCIENCES,

BY HON. SAMUEL A. ELIOT.

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Ladies and Gentlemen:—In the lectures of the course which is now drawing to a close, you have had valuable illustrations of the effects which may follow from the combination of education with original ability. The lectures themselves have furnished the evidence of the beneficial results of that great agency which I have selected as my subject; and I should not have dared to have joined the series of eminent persons who have preceded me, had I not believed that there are some important truths connected with the topic of education not generally recognized, but which it requires neither genius to discover, nor eloquence to develop; truths, the effect of which depends upon their intrinsic importance, and not on the rhetoric by which they may be embellished. It may be said, too, that he who stands on the outside of a temple can see its proportions and its beauty, which he who has already entered its penetralia can only remember.

We have had illustrations of ancient literature, modern poetry, art, science, and their connections and contrasts, and the dependence of all upon the intellect, which is the common property and agent of art, science, and poetry. But the practical subject of the means by which the intellect, the mother of all the three, may be cultivated and enriched, has been, as yet, scarcely touched, and it will be my object to show by what agency this may be best effected, and to point out the duty of society in relation to that cultivation, as well as some of the advantages which may be derived from it.

A feeling very nearly akin to indignant surprise might very naturally be expected to arise in a Massachusetts audience, and more especially in a Boston audience, who should be addressed upon the deficiencies of our system of education. "What!" they might exclaim, "was not Massachusetts the very first to establish, and the most earnest to maintain a plan of absolutely universal education? Was it not made compulsory upon every town to sustain its schools? Have we not provision, too, for the training of teachers, established by the State? Have we not Academies without end, and Colleges more numerous, in proportion to our population, than any other State? What would you have more?" If my audience would pardon me for the heresy, I would have a great deal more, both of instruction and of system; and the whole should be so extended as to be adapted to all the educational wants of the population. There should be not only some education for all, but every needed kind of education, from which all may make their choice. There should be not only provision for the dissemination of mental food, but the means of gathering and storing the harvest, of increasing the growth of future years, and of varying the culture with the changing tastes and wants of successive generations.

In this country the government is the combined power, intelligence and wealth of the entire people. At least it acts for, represents the whole people for purposes which cannot be attained so well by individual action; and for education among the chief and foremost. With regard to all elementary education this has been long acknowledged. Nobody has doubted that it was the duty of the State, as such, to provide, in some way or other, for that portion of education in which all must participate equally, or, at least, in which all desire to participate equally; but the moment there is any proposition to go beyond this, it is met by the argument that such education is not equally for the benefit of all, but for the few. It is special legislation for particular classes; and not only it is not the duty of government to provide for such education, but it is anti-republican in its nature, and therefore government ought resolutely to refuse to do any such thing. If there is truth and justice in this argument, it must be admitted to be conclusive. If free governments cannot foster education in all its forms and degrees, let us look for other means and resources; but if there be any fallacy here, it is important to discover it, and set it aside, for of all agencies in promoting improvement, of whatever sort, that of the government, wielding substantially the entire resources of the people, is the most effective. If the wealth of the people cannot properly be used by their agents, except for the equal, direct benefit of all, it becomes us to know it; and if this doctrine be established, I must stop here. Let us inquire a little into this matter, as preliminary to any full discussion of the subject.

I do not know that it is characteristic of republics in general to legislate much, to be always regulating everything, and to change the regulations of one year by those of the next; but most unquestionably it is a marked distinction of American legislatures to be very busy in doing and undoing, and it will be a most surprising and unlooked for result if all this legislation, backward and forward, enacting and repealing, considering and reconsidering, making experiments of every imaginable variety, should turn out invariably, or even generally, to be directly for the equal benefit of all classes. So far is this from the truth, that there is scarcely a law, however general in its terms, excepting, perhaps, those for the protection of the person, in which all have, or can have, an equal interest. Laws for the protection of property affect differently those who have different amounts of property to be protected; and those for the protection of particular kinds of property affect only, or at least principally, those who possess it. What direct interest have you or I in the law which protects the alewife fishery in Agawam river? Or what has the farmer or the sailor to do with the especial protection of shops from larceny? There was a law passed last winter in our legislature, in the most general terms possible, very remarkable for its comprehensiveness, as well as its brevity, but which scarcely affects one person in a hundred thousand at all, directly or indirectly; and yet it was a very proper and reasonable law, one which ought to pass, and which will never be counted among the misdeeds of the legislature. It consisted of the following nine words: "Aliens may take, hold, convey and transmit real estate." Nothing can be more general in its form, yet it is for the direct benefit of but a

small class of inhabitants in this State, and they not citizens; nothing can be more equitable, and yet scarcely one in ten thousand citizens will ever derive any benefit from it, or, perhaps, even, ever hear of it.

Such laws, viz., those which are sometimes invidiously designated as special legislation, are necessarily passed, every year, by every legislature in America, by common consent; and if all such were erased from the statute book, we should find we had taken a long step backward in the path of civilization. The true limitation in this particular, is not that a law should benefit all equally, for that, as a general rule, is impossible, but that it should do no wrong to any, that it should injure no one without compensation. It should benefit somebody, but to require it to benefit every body alike, is to require an impossibility.

Laws for the promotion of education, will, undoubtedly, if wisely made, be of great, of incalculable benefit to the whole community, through their direct action, and of still greater advantage through that which is indirect; and I now propose to suggest what, it seems to me, would be a true and complete system of education for the benefit, and by the means and resources of the Commonwealth, and to urge some arguments to show the importance of the object, and the duty which devolves on the government of the Commonwealth to carry into execution such scheme of general education as shall appear to it most comprehensive and useful.

The present educational plans of Massachusetts embrace nothing more than the Common School for children, and the Normal School for the teachers. Nothing is taught, under the auspices of the Commonwealth, but the absolute necessities of intellectual life; those elements which may enable the child of a poor man, if endowed with an ardent genius, to educate himself imperfectly in after life, or the son of a rich man to move on more rapidly, under the guidance of such instructors as may be procured for him by a liberal expenditure.

The acquisition of knowledge, the discipline of the mind, which is the best result of the best education, is not a task so soon or so easily finished. The road is steep, difficult, abounding with obstacles interminable. And shall the State, the common mother, content herself with standing at its very entrance, just holding the gate open, and saying, "Enter, my children, this is the road to eminence. Climb up these first hills, and you will have a splendid view of mountains upon mountains beyond, which you may ascend if you like, and which you must climb if you mean to reach a really lofty position."

It was a great thing two centuries ago that New England should have done so much more, in the days of her poverty and anxiety and weakness, than the rest of the world, to promote the general education by public authority; but it is nothing to boast of that she should have made no progress since, in the same way, and that the Common School has become now, the sole object of her care. In Massachusetts provision was made, more than two centuries ago, for a more extended course of education, to be sustained by all the resources of the colony; and if we had retained the noble ambition of our fathers and founders, such a purpose would never have slipped out of view, or have become unpopular. A college was talked of, and an appropriation was made

for it by the colonial authority, within a year after grammar schools were established, — and our ancestors were right in thinking the one altogether inadequate, as the means of public instruction, without the other. The common school is the cradle, and the intellectual food furnished there is fit for the infant occupant; but to claim that the State has done its whole duty in providing those only for its children, is establishing a very limited sphere of duty indeed. It would be as wise to contend that the parent was absolved from all responsibility for the child as soon as it was able to stand alone, and that thenceforward the poor thing should provide for itself. No. If it be the duty of the parent to provide at all for his child, it is his duty to do so till the child is able to provide for himself; and if it be the duty, or if it be wise for the State to provide any education for the community, it is its duty, and it is wise for it to furnish as much as is needed for the preparation of that community for all the duties and occupations of life. The true limit is the benefit to be derived to the whole of society by providing means of improvement which cannot be so well obtained otherwise. The resources of the State are so much more vast than those of individuals, that what is impossible for the latter would scarce produce a perceptible financial effect on the former.

It has long been the practice here, and a very wise one too, to leave individuals to provide for themselves, without aid from the State, so long as they can do it; but it has also been the practice for the State to patronize the projects of individuals, and give them countenance and material aid, when it is needed, and when those projects tend to promote the general welfare. One branch of this policy has been as wise as the other, and our most valuable physical improvements have been effected in this way. Sometimes a charter with temporary privileges has been granted, like the patents of the general government, and sometimes the State itself has become copartner in its own corporations, and has reaped, directly and indirectly too, a rich harvest of gain on the speculation. In the great business of education the "let alone" policy has been, in my judgment, pursued to far too great an extent.

Since the establishment of our present constitution, in 1780, very little has been done by the Commonwealth in aid of any establishment for education, excepting the common schools. The colleges owe very nearly all the resources provided since 1780, to individual contributions, while the academies and professional schools derive from the same source every dollar they possess. The consequence is that there is in every institution of the sort a great display of individual preferences for this or that branch of education,—professorships established, not as a part of a general plan, but merely because some well-disposed gentleman thought it desirable; collections containing, not the books, the instruments, the specimens which were exactly needed in the college course, but such as happened to be in the possession of the donors; and when all is brought together there is seen many a yawning gap, many a "*hiatus valde deflendus*," which, to the eye of the well-informed observer, really constitutes the most striking peculiarity of our academic institutions. Nothing is complete, nothing systematic; and it requires the greatest ingenuity and effort on the part of those who have the management of these institutions, to draw together the various

fragments of the miscellaneous donations, in order to make even a decent show of preparation for the true purpose of a college; and frequent and wearisome appeals to the generosity of individuals, to supply the want which happens to press most severely at the moment, though it may in fact be no more important than any of the others, and though the temporary supply which may be obtained will not prevent the recurrence of the same necessity within a brief period. Let me not be understood as uttering a syllable of reproach against the noble benefactors of our colleges. It is not their fault that the institutions are imperfectly arranged and imperfectly supplied with the means of instruction. It is their great glory that our colleges have accomplished so much, that so valuable an education can be obtained in them as is actually given; and the gratitude of all future generations of Americans will be forever due to those generous men who have labored so successfully to prevent the decline and fall of the republic of letters among us. It was not their privilege, nor their duty, to found complete and well-organized colleges. They had no power and no opportunity to do so; and of all men it would least become me to say a word in disparagement of those whom the richest and noblest of the world might well emulate, and whom all must honor. But my experience, both as a pupil and an officer of a college, has led me to see and to deplore the existence of imperfections so great and manifold as to be quite beyond the probable reach of the means which have been heretofore applied to remove them, but which yet may be easily and effectually remedied, if the public mind can be brought to take what seems to me the right view of the case.

The great question is, What is the duty of the State in regard to this matter? There exists no doubt, in the mind of any one, as to what the State Government ought to do in relation to all other interests. It ought to develop all its resources, increase its attractions, do all in its power to induce the active and intelligent to seek it for their residence, and to promote in every way, the comfort, health, security and happiness of its population. These are its unquestioned duties, and these are the professed objects of the laws, and of the administration of them. Now in what way can those purposes be effected so thoroughly and advantageously, as by increasing knowledge and the means of education? Look at the effect of the small amount of education which has thus far been given, by public authority and by private contribution, in New England. What else has given us the not undeserved reputation for ingenuity and sagacity which distinguishes us among the States of this Union? Is there any doubt that it is education which has contributed largely to that development of mind which we may claim to be at least one of our characteristics? And is there not a difference discernible in the progress even of the several New England States, in favor of those where the education has been the best and the most extended? I think it may be doubted if, without its aid, so large a population as now enjoys the institutions of Massachusetts could exist upon its soil. Certainly they could not have found the material or the intellectual enjoyments they possess without the cultivation of their minds. If such are the results of a meagre and insufficient, unsystematic and incomplete education, what beneficent consequences might

not be expected to flow from a full, free, fertilizing stream of knowledge which, like the overflow of the Nile, should reach every sequestered, thirsty spot in the whole land!

We have, ourselves, set the noble example to the world, of the universal diffusion of some knowledge among all classes. It has been followed by other States, and we are no longer the only nation whose whole population is taught something. Nay, there are many countries which we are accustomed to regard as very benighted, where much more is taught, and well taught too, than in our schools. But if they have surpassed us in our own department, if those old despotic governments have learned that knowledge is power, in nations as well as individuals, it is time we gave them something else to imitate, it is time that we looked after our own sources of power in comparison with theirs; and that we should not suffer ourselves to be outstripped by them in the career of improvement. We must follow our own example, or rather the example of our forefathers, and perfect, in proportion to our means and opportunities, what they began in spite of want, embarrassment, and adversity. How shall we do this? In answer to this question, I say that we must provide sufficient means for educating the entire people in every variety of way in which they desire to be educated, in conformity with the wants of the age, and the peculiar circumstances in which they are placed. The time has gone by when reading and writing were considered accomplishments, and great mysteries, or in Indian language great "medicines." They are necessities to every body; and in the progress of events, much more is wanted by thousands among us who can, by no means, obtain that which they seek. In every profession and every department of human employment, new knowledge has been gained, of which every new laborer in each department must be possessed, or he can make no advance. And not merely so: if he is not possessed of the most recent discoveries, he falls behind his class, and is deprived of the satisfactions of various kinds, which he sees some of his companions enjoying. The government of the Commonwealth is bound to see this state of things; and seeing it, is bound to strive to meet the circumstances of the times. It has the resources, and no one else has what is requisite. It has the power of adapting itself to the wants of all, and supplying the wants of all. Let it see to it, then, that the duty which has fallen upon it be discharged, that the means of progress and improvement in its hands be not wasted, nor suffered to lie unemployed. The intellect of its people is the richest field it can till, the richest mine it can explore. Let it no longer be satisfied with furnishing the most elementary of all elementary education; but let it believe that its children can profitably use something more than the alphabet and the numeration table.

It is enough to make the most sanguine person despond of the progress of education among us, to consider the immense wants of our colleges, the irregularity and want of system in the means which are furnished for the cultivation of the young, and the small portion of the community to whom any appeal can be made to relieve their constantly pressing wants. In looking over the donations which have been made by subscription for a vast variety of purposes, including education, within the period of this generation, one finds the same names of a

limited number of persons recurring on almost every paper, so that one is painfully impressed with the inequality with which the burdens incident to the promotion of the public good are borne. The only way to remedy this injustice is to provide by law for the maintenance of all those establishments which the public good really requires.

It seems to be commonly imagined that a college education is something very magnificent, and much beyond the wants of the people; and they have been unwisely taught to be very jealous of it, as of something very aristocratic in its tendency, and deserving of anything rather than encouragement. But what is it, after all? I desire to speak with the most entire respect of the education given in our colleges, and of those who give it. It is indispensable, both as a discipline of the mind, and as the means of furnishing a certain amount of positive and necessary knowledge. But still it is only preparatory to something else. It is a stepping stone, and not a resting point. Pray do not let us imagine that a young man who has merely gone through college must therefore know a great deal. I can affirm, both from experience and observation, that his knowledge amounts to but very little. But that little some of us must have, or we can have no learned professions among us; and I cannot believe it would be profitable for a State to have no well-instructed clergy, physicians, or jurists. Of course the entire population does not require a college education; but the State requires some men educated in that particular manner, a certain proportion, which will necessarily be an increasing number with the growth of the State; and for its own sake, as a matter of public advantage, and the general welfare, it ought to provide the means of giving such education to all who need it. It would be easy to prevent those to whom it was not suitable from wasting their time in trying to obtain it, by keeping the standard of attainment so high, that none but those who could profit by it should remain in such institutions. If the door were thus opened to all who wished to enter, the number would be somewhat larger, no doubt, than heretofore; but all those whom it is desirable to remove would leave their places for more promising pupils, and thus the actual addition would not probably be excessive. By providing for collegiate education throughout the State, I mean that the government should furnish not merely the supervision of colleges, which it has heretofore so carefully preserved, but that it should actually provide all necessary means and appliances, such as buildings, books, instruments, salaries, scholarships, collections, and all the thousand etcetera of college studies, so that it might really have something of its own to look after, instead of seizing upon what has been established by private bounty, and calling it a State institution, merely because it is designed or adapted to benefit the whole Commonwealth.

Doubtless politicians of all parties, as at present advised, will look with great contempt and indignation at a proposition involving such a vast expense as the proper endowment of the three existing colleges in Massachusetts; and so they would have done at the act, — not a *mere* proposition, but the positive action of their fathers, — if they had *been alive in 1686.* "What!" they would have said, "appropriate *£400 sterling* for a college, when we have but little more than that

amount of money in the whole colony! A college, too, in the woods, where there is nobody but Indians, and when there are not fifty white boys to be found within fifty miles. The thing is preposterous. We want all our means and hands to meet our physical wants, and it will be time enough to talk about book-learning when we have established ourselves with a little more strength and security." Not so thought, not so acted our fathers. And now that we can look upon the results of their policy, even as it regards physical prosperity, we can see that they could have done nothing wiser, or more kind to their posterity, than the founding of schools *and colleges*, cultivating the mental powers, and giving to their children that activity and energy which have converted the wilderness into a garden, and the land of granite and ice into the abode of freedom, comfort, and abundance. Their fine example was followed in the other New England Colonies, and more or less in the remainder; and it is in large part, if not entirely, to the intellectual and moral progress imparted by schools *and colleges*, that we owe our advance in outward prosperity, our reputation, and even our independence as a nation; for it is not likely that an uneducated people could have begun, much less have successfully concluded, the war of our Revolution. If we owe all this to the wisdom of our fathers, are we not bound to imitate them? The time has now come, surely, when we have strength, security, and means enough to do as we choose without pinching ourselves, or scarcely feeling the pressure of the necessary taxation. The people who have $200,000,000 and more of annual revenue, ought to have something to spare for the education of their children, even if it were with no other object than to increase their income. There is no way in which even this humble object can be secured so effectually as by appropriate and well-directed education. But there is no need of appealing to any such inferior motives. The results of extended education are too well understood and appreciated to be looked at with indifference by the people, if their attention can be drawn to the facts of the case, and the duties which have fallen upon them. No man objects now to taxation for the support or improvement of common schools. No man will object, when the subject is equally well understood, to taxation for the support and improvement of colleges, or any institution for necessary instruction.

It is not colleges alone in which the State, as a State, has an interest. The school and the college both are only preparatory, as I have said, to something else. A people, a community, cannot prosper certainly, in these days, without the learned professions; nor can it prosper without mechanical skill, without proficiency in the arts of agriculture and navigation, nor without the knowledge of those principles of industry, and international commerce, on the due apportionment of which national and individual progress and success so greatly depend. All these things, therefore, and whatsoever is subsidiary to the attainment of valuable knowledge in each of them, should be under the charge and patronage of the government. The State should supply the schools and the teachers, the implements and the means of every description which are necessary to the prosecution of studies in all these departments of human knowledge.

If it be asked why it should be regarded as the duty of the govern-

ment to provide for all this, when experience proves that individuals will do it, if not interfered with, the answer is, that experience proves that individuals will do no such thing; that they do not, and cannot, establish schools upon a general and harmonious plan, but that they usually do such things for particular purposes, either private ends of personal advantage, or to gratify their particular taste in the cultivation of this or that branch of learning; and further, that even such schools as are established by single or by associated individuals, are generally lamentably deficient in resources as well as in system. If a machine shop is established by an individual, it is for the manufacture of a certain class of machinery only, and for his especial profit. If a school is founded, it is limited alike in its object and its means. If it is for a purpose which the public demands, it is altogether inadequate to supply the want; and at all events, it is certain that no individual, and scarcely associated wealth can supply the means necessary for the proper instruction of the whole youth of the Commonwealth in any one, much less in all of the departments in which instruction is needed. These things must be done by the government for the same reason that the national defence is conducted by it. All people have an instinct for self-defence, as well as for self-cultivation, and it might be as safely argued that they should be left to defend themselves from foreign aggression as to protect themselves from ignorance. In both cases the outlay is necessarily too great for individual resources, and in both the want of system destroys a great part of the value of whatever is appropriated; so that ultimately the general plan which may be, and should be, pursued by government, is by far the most economical as well as the most effective.

Harvard College is the largest institution for education in the State, and has been, through its whole history, principally dependent upon private bounty and the taxation of the students for its means of existence; and when we recollect the mode in which it has grown to its present size, the patch-work additions by which instruction has been furnished in various departments, not according to any plan, not always according to the visible and acknowledged wants of the public, but to the fancies of individuals; when we see the very great deficiencies in all sorts of apparatus for the purposes professed, we cannot fail to be surprised that the education obtained there is so respectable as it is, and must attribute to the ingenuity and devotedness of its officers that which certainly is not due to the wisdom or liberality of the Commonwealth. Harvard College is not materially different in plan of organization or instruction from the other colleges in the State. It may give a little more instruction, and be a little better provided than they are with some of the necessary subsidiary appliances for education; but what is true of one is true of all, that there are great deficiencies yet to be supplied, great expenses to be diminished, and necessary resources to be furnished. The complaints are universal of the cost and the imperfection of our collegiate education; and the question is, what is the remedy? It would seem from the general direction of complaint, that the public opinion must be that the colleges themselves, or rather their *officers and managers*, are the blameworthy parties. But when the *general allegation* is sifted, even by excited partisans, by those who

have been loudest in their complaints, it is found that no money has been lost or misused, and that no body of men are more laborious and faithful than the instructors. It has been shown over and over again, by the severest scrutiny, that the fault is not in that quarter; and it unavoidably follows that there is a call by the public for a quality and extent of education for which it has not as yet furnished the means; and if that public intends to have such facilities of instruction, it must pay what they will cost.

There are some points in which the expenses of instruction may be expected to diminish with the progress of time. Thus books, and perhaps instruments, may become cheaper; but there are others, and those very essential, in which it is almost certain that they will not be reduced. With the progress of wealth in the community the cost of living to instructors as well as pupils, is not likely to fall, and the value of suitable teachers, as indicated by their salaries, is quite sure to rise. There is no good reason why an eminent scholar, and a competent instructor, should be paid no more than a mechanic can earn; or a president of a college be considered as compensated for a less sum than the superintendent of a machine shop, or a cotton factory; and it is a thing to be noted by the public, and by those who represent the public in the halls of legislation, that if the course of events and of sympathies continue much longer in its present direction, if industrial pursuits are to supersede, in the respect of men, those of a more intellectual character, to the extent that seems quite probable, if no proportionate regard is shown for those attainments which do not lead directly to the creation or accumulation of material wealth, the time is not far distant when men of intellect will desert a sphere of action in which they do not find adequate support or honor; the standard of character and attainments in professors and instructors will be lowered, and the quality of the instruction given be consequently degraded below its present high and improving tone; and the effect of all this will be made manifest not only in the colleges, but every where throughout the State, in every county lyceum, and every parish church, and ultimately in every school-house and workshop.

The interests of civilized life are so intermingled and woven together, that no one of them can be neglected without injury to all the rest; and it is for this reason, among others, that it is so important for the State to have the effective control of every department, and to furnish the means of supplying, in due proportion, the educational wants of every class of the community. To this end it should maintain its colleges in thorough and complete efficiency, as an indispensable means for the subsequent professional education. It should establish professional schools, too, in each department but theology: and in that it might advantageously lend its aid to every denomination in the Commonwealth that desired an institution for education, in proportion to its numbers. There should then be established and maintained as many Farm Schools as would be necessary to give some appropriate instruction to the children of all the farmers in the State; as many machine shops as would suffice to instruct all her mechanics and machinists in the theoretic principles of their art; as many scientific schools as would train up an adequate number of engineers, chemists,

architects, naturalists, geologists, and astronomers; as many schools of navigation as would be competent to prepare the future shipmasters and skippers that shall ever hereafter be born, from Newburyport all along shore to Provincetown, in the mysteries of their noble and indispensable occupation. I mean that the State should furnish all the pecuniary resources necessary to sustain all these institutions, and not leave any one of them to the individual benevolence or public spirit that may chance to be excited here or there. Still less should it leave their management to the skill and knowledge of individuals. The entire combination should be systematized by the wisest heads, and organized and conducted by the most adroit and competent administrators; the necessary apparatus should in each case be furnished at the public expense, and such means supplied as would aid in the support of those pupils too indigent to support themselves.

And now I imagine the prudent members of our House of Representatives looking aghast at the horrid phantom of the accumulated and aggravated expense I have raised. But let them not be alarmed in vain. The expense would not for many years exceed what might very well and profitably be saved out of their own excessive numbers and prolonged sessions. We have the authority of His Excellency the Governor for the statement that the expenses of legislation in 1851 and 1852 exceeded those of 1841 and 1842 by the sum of $144,000, and I suppose nobody will doubt that there was legislation enough ten years ago. Let the people have, for purposes of education, merely what might be saved by judiciously curtailing the annual session of the Legislature, and the number of its members, and we might have the greater part, if not the whole, of all I have enumerated, without a dollar of additional taxation. And if it be true, as I think there can be no doubt it is, that the people of Massachusetts grudge no judicious expenditure for general education, then all that is necessary is to show them that the plan proposed would be for the good of all, that it is not a scheme to assist one class and leave another to its fate, but that it comprehends all as equally as the nature of things will permit,—let them be satisfied that such a scheme offers the best investment of their superfluity, and let them realize the advantages which would accrue to the entire population, and the renown which such an all-embracing scheme would confer upon our glorious old Commonwealth over all the world, and I will venture to predict there will be no complaint of the amount of taxation necessary to carry it into full effect.

The people of Boston are a pretty fair sample of the New Englander. They are gathered from every part of Yankeedom, from every section of this and the adjoining States. Now it is well known that one quarter of the entire tax of the city has been, for many years, spent upon the schools, making a sum of from $200,000 to $300,000, according to the growth and consequent wants of the population, and an average of more than $2 a head for every man, woman and child within its limits. Yet who hears the first word of complaint about the amount expended? There may be occasional fault found with the manner in which it is *used, as injudicious* or extravagant, but never with the appropriation *of such a proportion* of the tax bill. The member of the Legislature *who first discovers,* and acts upon the discovery, that the spirit of the

people of the entire Commonwealth is the same as that of the city of Boston, in this respect, is destined to a greater renown than has been acquired by any one of them for several years. $300,000 per annum, about the sum raised in Boston for the purpose, would accomplish all, and more than all, that has been mentioned. Half that amount, perhaps a quarter of it, wisely used, would accomplish it in a few years; and half that amount would be an addition, not of $2 apiece, but of less that one shilling a head to the population of the entire State. Who shall say that this is impossible?

Let it be considered, too, that if these foundations were once made by the Commonwealth, the private benevolence which has already done so much towards these very objects would still continue to delight in giving its aid, as it has already to several of the State institutions, and thus the burden on the treasury would gradually be materially relieved. But why talk of a burden on the treasury, when all experience shows that for every dollar spent in this way by the State, five are speedily returned, and our credit, now higher than that of any other State in the Union, would by such a course be made to rise higher yet? It is the school and the college which now create a large part of the wealth of the State, and support a large share of her credit abroad. Let the system of education be extended and perfected, and we will have such a Commonwealth as the world has not yet seen.

The party of education is the true party of progress, of a sure movement onwards and upwards. The extension of the area of freedom, which means only overrunning our neighbors, seizing their territory, and making them free, whether they will or not, may be productive of benefit, if God overrule to such an end the human passions which may bring it about; but the probability is, that doing such enormous evil, that good may come of it, would be productive of more mischief than even our former sins of the same kind, burdening our institutions with the dangerous support of those who do not and cannot understand them, and inflaming to ten-fold heat the sectional jealousies which are always hot enough. And what are the advantages that can flow from the acquisition even of Cuba, compared with those which will not fail to result from the appropriate education of the whole youthful population? People who can sell with profit the rough stones in their hills, and the spring water in their ponds, have no occasion to envy the growers of sugar and coffee, or to covet the possession of their lands; while the position of Massachusetts, as a cultivated, intellectual, and prosperous commonwealth, may well be, aye, it is a subject of envy to many who have more physical wealth, but less of the products of mind.

Whatever is satisfactory or honorable in our past history, and our present condition, may be traced very directly to the intelligence and cultivation of the mind of the people; and whatever has happened or now exists which is unsatisfactory or discreditable, may, in like manner, be undoubtingly ascribed to the want of knowledge and discretion which might and probably would have been prevented by a more extended and better system of education. If these things are so, there will be but few of the million of inhabitants of this Commonwealth, who will grudge the cost of a plan by which it will be raised to the highest pinnacle *of the glory suited to the* present age,—the glory of intelligence,

knowledge, improvement in every department of society; and there will be equally few who will not look with distrust upon politicians who will do nothing to promote the kind of progress which is of more importance than all other public measures, and which alone can enable the little Commonwealth of Massachusetts to maintain a station of eminence among the States of the earth. Every successive legislature should be held to a strict accountability, by their constituents, till they shall have found out that the advantage of the Commonwealth is something different from the obtaining of offices for themselves and their political friends, and of more importance, too, and which the people are determined to cause them to attend to, in preference to their own emolument or station. Something to promote this greatest of all public objects should be done each year, and every year till the end is certainly and securely obtained. Then, and not till then, shall we have done our duty to the fathers, who knew so well "what constitutes a State," and who bequeathed to us such great opportunities of improvement, and our duty to posterity, who will have a right to the best that we can do for them, and who must not accuse us of having neglected or misused the privileges we are bound to transmit to them, not merely unimpaired, but increased.

LETTER FROM THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.

HONOLULU, *Sandwich Is., Sept. 3d*, 1852.

(*Concluded from page* 55.)

Geography is a study which takes more of my time for preparation than any other. We go by no particular text-book, though Bliss's Analysis is nominally our text-book. I assign particular countries, and the class have a set of topics to be examined with reference to all these countries. They get their information from all sorts of resources, encyclopædias, histories, geographies, &c., &c. Each scholar is expected to examine every topic, though some get a great deal more than others. When one is called upon to recite a topic, for instance the soil, if any think he is wrong they make *their* statement, and then we compare notes; or, if any one has anything additional to state, he raises his hand and an opportunity is given. This is very common, and in this way we get a full statement of all the facts in the case; and many times I get information from the scholars—facts which I did not know before. I pay more attention to the great physical features of the countries. I do not require them to learn many numbers, and these only in round numbers, such as latitude and longitude, area, population, *lengths of the most important*, not always the *longest*, rivers, *heights of mountains*, elevation of table lands, &c. We pay

but little attention to subdivisions of countries into counties and townships, &c., except such towns as are of much commercial or manufacturing or political importance. We should spend more time, for example, with Boston, than with all the rest of the towns in Massachusetts. Every scholar is required to draw a map of the country, or section of country which he is studying, from memory, on the blackboard. Each scholar draws a map every day, and we recite mostly from these maps, pointing out the position of towns, describing rivers, surfaces, &c. The older scholars spell once a week—fifty words each week—on Friday afternoon. The lesson, sometimes in misspelled words—in which case the scholars are to find out how they should be spelled—these are commonly words which have been misspelled in their compositions—are handed to some of the scholars who print them neatly on the top of the blackboards, where they will be out of the way, and the scholars study them during the week. On Friday, P. M., the words are put out to the school, who write them in nice books, previously prepared; these books are then collected and handed to me. Then the words, or such of them as I choose, are put out again, and the pupils called upon to spell them orally, define them, and illustrate their meaning by a sentence, and we frequently spend a considerable time on one word, examining and illustrating its different meanings. I examine the written lessons, and such as have missed five or more words re-write the lesson. The smaller scholars spell every day the words of their reading lesson, some orally, and some writing them on the blackboard, according to their age. Writing and drawing alternately, each every other afternoon, about three-fourths of an hour. Those who do not draw write every afternoon except Friday. I keep some scholars a whole term on a single copy, till they get a free use of their hand.

Singing comes the last thing before the long recess. There are two classes, those who are learning to read the notes, and those who can already read them; the first attend more particularly to the rules, and the last to singing tunes. There are other studies, but I will not stop to particularize further. My general plan is the same, varying according to the nature of the study. We have a recess of ten minutes at half-past ten, at twelve, and one, of an hour, from half-past one till half-past two, and a short recess about a quarter-past three, closing at four, P. M. We close school with singing. Between the recesses there are little rests of two minutes each, when scholars can communicate with each other, and, by obtaining permission, can leave their seats to get anything they wish; at other times there must be nothing of any kind going on between one scholar and another. A report of scholarship, deportment, and attendance *is sent home every* week and returned again, signed by

the parent. I find this very efficacious for good. But I have written much more than I expected on these points, and will stop.

A word or two in regard to our rhetorical exercises. We declaim every week, on Friday afternoon, before the recess. About half of the pupils declaim each week. Some of the older boys write their own pieces for declamation. Our compositions are carefully attended to; all who are able to write are required to have a composition in my drawer as soon as Wednesday night. They are dropped in through a hole in the top. If the composition is not in Wednesday, the scholar is marked a failure, and is required to write a composition the next day at the long recess. This is an invariable rule. My principle in all the exercises is not to *allow* a scholar to fail unless previously excused for a good reason. I take no excuses after the failure, except in extraordinary cases. If a scholar fails in his recitation, he must stop and learn it at the long recess; I am always in the school-room, or about it, at that time.

Sat. Sept. 11. The mail goes to-day. We are in successful operation in our fourth term,—eighty pupils and one assistant.

POPULAR EDUCATION, *by Ira Mayhew, A. M. Second Edition. New York: D. Burgess & Co.*

MR. MAYHEW was formerly engaged as a practical teacher in the State of New York; and afterwards, for a period of five or six years, he was distinguished as the able and efficient Superintendent of Public Instruction, in Michigan. His treatise on Popular Education was prepared in accordance with a Resolution of the Legislature of that State, and embraces the substance of the Lectures prepared by him while engaged in discharging the duties of his office. The great interests of physical, intellectual, and moral education are here ably and thoroughly discussed, in a volume of between four and five hundred pages. It is adapted to the wants of teachers, and parents, and pupils; and has already taken its place among the few standard works that we possess on the subject of Popular Instruction.

CHANGES.

Mr. F. Crosby, late principal of the High School in South Reading, succeeds Mr. Hunt in the Plymouth High School. Salary, $800.

Mr. Adoniram Alden, for several years past a highly successful teacher in Dorchester, has received the appointment of Usher in the Quincy School, Boston, in place of Mr. James O. *Brown, promoted.* Salary, $800.

THE

MASSACHUSETTS TEACHER.

Vol. VI. No. 4.] J. W. ALLEN, Editor of this Number. [April, 1853.

COMBINED INFLUENCE OF WRITTEN AND SPOKEN LANGUAGE.

It is a pleasing and beautiful thought that every thing in nature and providence and in mind and matter harmonizes with the entire universe for some useful end; that the smallest insect as well as the unyielding mammoth, and the morning dew-drop as well as the mighty ocean, tend alike to complete the gradation scale of creation's work, and exhibit the wisdom of creation's Lord. The physical world is vocal with attestations of its designed utility. There may be existences of whose relation to the great whole, and consequently of whose utility, we know nothing. But the imperfection of our knowledge even in reference to the most easily grasped truth, and our utter incapacity to comprehend the vast schemes and inscrutable intentions of their Author, whom we know to be wise and benevolent, should check us from making hasty assertions in reference to them. And at the same time all things of which we have anything like perfect knowledge, give evidence of an all-pervading, useful design, and most of them have it so legibly written on their face, that "he who runneth may read" it. Whether Nature speaks by the soft cadences of her evening dew-falls, the deep silence of her midnight slumbers, the saffron robes of her sunny mornings, or the noisy clatter of her mid-day toil, she utters notes of wisdom, and leaves the impress of truth. Silent she may be, but it is the silence of eloquence, for her voiceless tongue pleads for her Creator and his honor with unequalled power.

The world of mind, we reason from analogy, cannot be intended to effect nothing useful. The thinking principle, with all its vast plans and comprehensive powers, cannot have been designed as a blank amid the numerous beneficial influences which exist around us; but rather, by as much as its capabilities for effort and attainment are greater, and its means of usefulness more extended, by so much does it step forth to claim the power of conferring higher benefits.

It was given to man as the repository of knowledge and the investigator of science, that by its exertions in nature's field, and by the communication of its acquired information, it might sow the seeds of truth every where, and make its own attainments the property of the species. Created to know, it was sent forth on the accomplishment of its errand, with an earnest desire and unquenchable ardor to do it. Designed to communicate what it knew, two channels of communication were opened to it. Man was endowed with the power of speech, and Jehovah on twelve tables of stone set him the example to commit his knowledge to writing; each of these media becoming in turn the more available through which mind may utter its thoughts. To produce an immediate effect on congregated thousands, no doubt the living orator has a greater influence than the mere writer, but his influence is less permanent and extensive. Cicero's speech against Catiline produced its designed effect when accompanied with the effective gestures, burning words, and pointed rebukes of its author. It would probably have failed to drive him into exile, if it had been only an ink and paper missile. But that speech written does not allow its influence to die with Catiline and the Roman audience, for it perpetuates it forever. The written page is the best guaranty of permanency to the truly literary man, and also of the production of extensive and continued benefits to his fellow-man. The Roman Lyric poet beautifully expressed a truth when he wrote, "Exegi monumentum aere perennius." Its influence and results are most extensive. The teacher need no longer confine his efforts to extend the conquest of truth to his own immediate presence. Standing on the other side of the globe, the million may feel his power by the simple instrumentality of a pen. He need no longer despair of reaching all the destitute of earth, and relieving them. A world may be aroused by the pen.

The teacher need no longer mourn over errors which he cannot reach. The diffusion of truth in written characters can follow error through all its intricate windings, and drag it forth from all its dark hiding places.

The combined influence of written and spoken language will overcome every obstacle, and in spite of untoward circumstances will make the wilderness blossom as the rose.

OF WRITING.

BY M. F. TUPPER.

It fixeth, expoundeth and disseminateth sentiment;
Chaining up a thought, clearing it of mystery and sending it bright into the world.
To think rightly, is of knowledge; to speak fluently, is of nature;
To read with profit, is of care; but to write aptly, is of practice.
No talent among men hath more scholars and fewer masters;
For to write, is to speak beyond hearing, and none stand by to explain.
To be accurate, write; to remember, write; to know thine own mind, write:
And a written prayer is a prayer of faith; special, sure, and to be answered.
Hast thou a thought upon thy brain, catch it while thou canst;
Or other thoughts shall settle there, and this shall soon take wing:
Thine uncompounded unity of soul, which argueth and maketh it immortal,
Yieldeth up its momentary self to every single thought;
Therefore to husband thine ideas, and give them stability and substance,
Write often for thy secret eye; so shalt thou grow wiser.
The commonest mind is full of thoughts; some worthy of the rarest;
And could it see them fairly writ, would wonder at its wealth.
Thou hast not lost an hour, whereof there is a record;
A written thought at midnight shall redeem the livelong day.
Idea is a shadow that departeth; speech is fleeting as the wind,
Reading is an unremembered pastime; but a writing is eternal:
For therein the dead heart liveth, the clay-cold tongue is eloquent,
And the quick eye of the reader is cleared by the reed of the scribe.
As a fossil in a rock, or a coin in the mortar of a ruin,
So the symbolled thoughts tell of a departed soul;
The plastic hand hath its witness in a statue, and exactitude of vision in a picture,
And so the mind that was among us, in its writing is embalmed.

A discussion has taken place in the School Board of Cincinnati, respecting the use of the Bible in schools. The following resolve (moved by a Catholic) was finally adopted by a vote of 15 to 10:

Resolved, That the pupils in the Common Schools have permission to read such versions of the Sacred Scriptures as their parents may prefer, provided that such preference to any version, except the one now in use, be communicated by the parents to the principal teachers, and that no notes or marginal readings be read in schools, or comments made by the teachers on the text of any version that is, or may hereafter be, introduced.

COPIOUS KNOWLEDGE NECESSARY TO GOOD INSTRUCTION.

[We copy the following excellent remarks from an address recently delivered before the associate Alumni of the Merrimack Normal Institute, by Prof. John S. Woodman, of Dartmouth College. Prof. Woodman has held the office of Secretary of the Board of Education for New Hampshire, and is at present, we believe, President of that body. He is a sound educator and a ripe scholar.]

COPIOUS knowledge is necessary to good instruction. A long-experienced and distinguished teacher declares that copious knowledge lies at the foundation of all good instruction.

It is sometimes said that tact and skill in teaching will go a great way and make up for a deficiency of knowledge. There is no doubt these qualities will do a great deal with a little material. But if so, how much more usefulness and efficacy will they add to abundant knowledge. It is very rare to find a man of such peculiar temper of mind that he will not prove an acceptable and profitable teacher of that subject in which he is thoroughly versed and liberally informed. It is of consequence that the teacher should be above the standard to which he is expected to elevate his class. The business of instruction is no heedless pastime. In all subjects the scholar must be watched with a quick perception, and checked with a prompt and ready hand, from his constant tendency to deviate to the right hand and the left, and kept in the middle highway of his pursuit. Who can do this easily but the teacher of copious knowledge? And who knows best where the middle highway lies? he who has only travelled through it, or he who, besides that experience, has also surveyed all the surrounding country, and contemplated the journey from all the overlooking hills? With such a guide every step is progress in the right direction. For instance, in teaching the subject of Arithmetic, some may suppose it will answer very well to know the rules and be able to work the examples. But in such a case it generally happens that both teacher and scholar move carelessly and without much interest over the simple rules and fractions and all the more useful parts of the book, and come down with great zeal upon the Progressions, Positions, and Almanac questions in the last part, and finally close the book with a kind of triumph at having discovered its mysteries and got possession of its jewels. The ambition excited leads them to other books till Welch, and Walsh, and Adams, and Greenleaf, and the whole catalogue of Arithmetics are despoiled of this kind of treasure. Such instruction is liable to two very serious objections. The simple and most useful rules are never well learned, and although the student may solve the difficult *problems* with considerable skill, yet he cannot even write figures

so that others may read them with tolerable convenience, or cast the interest on a note with sufficient promptness to encourage his friends to request such a favor a second time. What he ought to know from the book is not well enough understood to be of much practical utility. The next objection is, that the student becomes impressed with the idea that the point of the subject lies in the difficult problems and more complicated rules, that are often feebly demonstrated, and injudiciously placed in the Arithmetic when they belong more properly to some other subject. He looks upon the subject as a kind of collection of Hobbs's locks to be picked for the exercise of his skill. And this is not all the disadvantage. The student often carries the same idea into other matters and looks for the point and substance of everything else in some cunning riddle or mysterious puzzle. False views of many things will stand in the way of his success and usefulness. In the ordinary business of life men will not seem to succeed so much from upright conduct and industrious habits as from lucky thoughts and out-of-the-way expedients. But the well-taught pupil is made to place more importance upon the elements of the subject, and to spend the time which others devote to the difficult problems upon higher subjects where the difficulties properly belong and are easily overcome. He learns and feels that the subjects of study are not made up of riddles and mysteries, and that patient attention makes everything alike clear and comprehensible, whether it be Colburn's First Lessons or the Transcendental Analysis, and whether it be a school-task or an enterprise in active life.

A teacher also wants copious knowledge so as to furnish abundant illustration. Different minds are differently affected by the same view of a subject, and that teacher has a great advantage who can furnish the illustrations which suit the occasion. Some subjects need to be expanded and enlivened so that the barren meagreness with which they first strike the learner shall be covered with some degree of life and interest. Others appear complicated and confused, and are to be condensed and thrown into a single sentence or a single word. How can the teacher of narrow knowledge do this well? Suppose a class are reciting in Geography. The lesson in the book may be interesting, but how much more so if the teacher's extensive knowledge of the history of the region and of travellers' accounts of the appearance and manners and customs enable him to add some pleasing information of his own. How much such assistance would add to the ordinary lessons on the Geography of Holland, Italy, or Switzerland.

There is another reason why the teacher ought to be liberally informed. It is that the knowledge is eloquent. Whatever a man is full of will be impressed upon others in many ways. It

will seem to clothe him like a garment. How much the trades, professions and pursuits of men contribute to give them character. The farmer, the clergyman, and the trader, cannot meet you without recalling to your mind much that belongs to their various pursuits. They may not speak of them, but the engrossing subject of the mind will speak through the dress, the countenance, the gait, the language, and almost every motion. So is the copious knowledge of the good teacher. It is eloquent, though he may not be upon that subject. Every anecdote and illustration has some turn or allusion that calls it to mind. This is true in regard to the branches commonly taught in the school, but it is especially important in regard to manners and propriety, and in regard to moral and religious instruction. Copious knowledge on these important subjects cannot well be supposed to exist without a practical illustration of them in the life and conduct of the teacher. And it will be found that the most valuable instruction in these things, which do more than all besides in forming a truly excellent character, is given more by the example, intercourse, and silent eloquence of worthy and respected men, than by all the books and lessons recited ever so much. The influence of correct and copious knowledge cannot be concealed. It will exert its power though its possessor may be unconscious of it.

Again, copious knowledge is useful to show the perfection of a subject and make it attractive. Almost every subject when seen in its highest perfection becomes so beautiful and fascinating that it immediately enkindles a desire to comprehend and partake of its excellences. Even the severe subject of Geometry, when seen in all its simplicity and completeness, when the absence of everything but what is strictly essential, and the absolute certainty of the demonstration are observed, becomes interesting and admirable in itself, as in many respects the most perfect human science and the standard model which all others may emulate, but can never equal. So it is with Music. It has a degree of interest in itself. But when a Paganini or a Jenny Lind shows its highest perfection, every body is in raptures and feels an impulse towards the art. The boys will bring into use again their old abandoned instruments, and all the children about the streets will try to sing and repeat the rapturous strains, and never give up their efforts till the remembrance of the divine perfection has faded from their memory and ceased to excite them. So it is with Painting and Sculpture. Artists visit Florence and Rome that they may look upon the master-works of Titian, Raphael and Michael Angelo, and there they see such expression and such execution as they had no conception of before. It is like a discovery. They feel themselves raised at the sight to a higher world, and at once agitated by new impressions and driven by new impulses. So

is the perfection of all subjects. I might make the attempt to teach good reading and good speaking with a very limited knowledge of the subject of elocution. I might go through most of the instruction and gain moderate success. But when the subject appears in its perfection in the hands of a proficient in the science, when all that is mirthful, gay, grand or terrible in human expression is made to pass in review at the hands of a master, you, Ladies and Gentlemen, will bear me witness that the subject itself becomes irresistible, and there is nothing, for the time being, that we feel such a strong desire to gain for ourselves. One such view as this of almost any subject is a guaranty of very considerable success.

For these reasons it is that good instruction requires copious knowledge, that the teacher may have a quick perception of the precise course the scholar ought to pursue, that he may abound in various illustration, that the subject may be eloquent in his hands, and that he may show somewhat of that perfection of it which is always enchanting to the view. But the teacher will ask, how is it possible at first to gain this copious knowledge on all the subjects taught? It will be impossible, and the teacher may well say that he feels embarrassed on those he is most familiar with. It is here that lies the teacher's task. Here is his duty and labor, to improve himself by constant study, and never think the work done while there is anything before him to be learned. This disposition more than anything else will characterize the good teacher, whose reward will be great both in the gratitude which others will bestow, and in the knowledge which he will gain for himself.

"THERE are two sorts of eloquence; the one indeed scarce deserves the name of it, which consists chiefly in labored and polished periods, an over-curious and artificial arrangement of figures, tinselled over with a gaudy embellishment of words, which glitter, but convey little or no light to the understanding. This kind of writing is, for the most part, much affected and admired by people of weak judgment and vicious taste, but is a piece of affectation and formality which the sacred writers are utter strangers to. It is a vain and boyish eloquence, and has always been esteemed below the great geniuses of all ages. The other sort of eloquence is quite the reverse of this, and may be said to be the true characteristic of the Holy Scriptures; where the excellence does not arise from labored and far-fetched elocution, but from a surprising mixture of simplicity and majesty." — STERNE.

PRECEPT AND EXAMPLE.

"Let precept and example
Aye hand in hand be seen,
For gude advice is plenty,
And unco easy gi'en;
And bairnies in the uptak'
Ye ken are seldom slow,
So aye, whate'er advice ye gi'e,
A gude example show.

They're gleg at imitation,
As ilka ane may ken:
The lassies a' would women be—
The laddies would be men;
So lead them kindly by the hand
The road that they should go,
And aye, whate'er advice ye gi'e,
A gude example show.

And should you promise ought to them,
Aye keep your promise true,
For truth a precious lesson is
That they maun learn frae you;
And ne'er reprove a naughty word
Wi' hasty word or blow,
But aye, whate'er advice ye gi'e,
A gude example show.

And so to home-born truth and love
Ye'll win ilk bonnie bairn,
For as they hear the old cock craw,
The young are sure to learn:
They'll spurn at mean hypocrisy,
Wi' honest pride they'll glow,
And bless the teachers' watchfu' care,
Wha gude example show."

THE EARLY LIFE OF DANIEL WEBSTER,

AS A STUDENT AND A TEACHER.

From Prof. Sanborn's Address at the Merrimac Normal Institute.

To perform any intellectual labor well, the student must "totus in illis," wholly absorbed in his favorite pursuits. history of every distinguished man in our country, may cited in proof of this assertion. I happen to have some authenticated facts respecting the early life of the most illu ous of our American statesmen. They present him befor *as a student* and a teacher. I trust they will not be dee

inappropriate to the present occasion. Mr. Webster remarked, in one of his recent speeches,—"My life has been one of severe labor in my profession. I know not how the bread of idleness tastes." This is literally true. From the day when he entered Exeter Academy, at the age of fourteen, to this hour, his life has been one uninterrupted scene of mental toil. Aged men, who were familiar with his early life, mention, among their earliest recollections of his childhood, a fondness for books above his years. His father kept open doors for all travellers. The teamsters, who came from the north, were accustomed to say, when they arrived at Judge Webster's house,—"Come, let us give our horses some oats and go in and hear little Dan read a Psalm." They always called for him; and, leaning upon their long whip-stocks, listened, with delighted attention, to the elocution of the young orator. This fondness for books first prompted his father to give him a better education than the district school afforded. At Exeter, he had no peer in successful and accurate study. His residence there was brief. The limited means of his father would not warrant the expense of a continued residence at that Academy. A cheaper method of preparing him for college was devised. He was placed under the care of Rev. Samuel Wood of Boscawen, who received pupils into his family on very moderate terms. On entering this family, his father revealed to him his intention of sending him to college. The announcement was received with unbounded exultation. No Roman consul ever received with greater joy, a senatorial decree for a triumph. Under Dr. Wood's tuition, with but an imperfect knowledge of the rudiments of the Latin tongue, he read one hundred verses of Virgil at a lesson. He not only read, but interpreted the poet. He understood and relished his polished diction. The English dress, which the young student put upon the old Roman, became him. His recreations then were the same which have occupied his leisure hours in later life. In his rambles among the neighboring woods, his rifle was his constant companion.

——— "linoque solebat et hamo
Decipere, et calamo salientes ducere pisces."

His kind mentor once ventured to suggest his fears lest young Daniel's example in devoting so much time to his favorite amusements, might prove injurious to the other boys. He did not complain that his task was neglected, or that any lesson was imperfectly prepared. This suggestion was sufficient. The sensitive boy could not bear the suspicion of any dereliction of duty. The next night was devoted to study. No sleep visited his eyes. His teacher appeared in the morning to hear his recitation. He read his hundred lines without mistake. He was no where found tripping in syntax or prosody. As his

teacher was preparing to leave, young Daniel requested him to hear a few more lines. Another hundred was read. Breakfast was repeatedly announced. The good Doctor was impatient to go, and asked his pupil how much further he could read. "To the end of the twelfth book of the Æneid," was the prompt reply. The Doctor never had occasion to reprove him again. His study hours, ever after, were sacred. In less than a year, he read with his teacher, Virgil and Cicero, and, in private, two large works of Grotius and Pufendorf, written in Latin. During the month of July, his father called him home to assist him on the farm. At this time of life, young Daniel had but a slender frame, and was not able to endure much fatigue. The trial of a single half day brought the boy home with blistered hands and wearied limbs. The next morning, his father gave him his little bundle of books and clothes, and bade him seek his old teacher again. Dr. Wood met him with a cordial greeting on his return, and assured him, that, with hard study, he might enter college at the next Commencement. He then had two months to devote to Greek, and he had not yet learned the alphabet. With characteristic energy he grappled with the task, and achieved a victory of which few can boast. What one of those college idlers, who talk so flippantly about the idleness of Daniel Webster when a student, has prepared himself for a like station in two short months? The students of that day were deprived of many of the comforts and luxuries of life which are now so liberally enjoyed. They usually travelled on horseback. Their dress was entirely of domestic manufacture. When Daniel Webster went to college, he took the least valuable of his father's horses, which would not be missed from the farm, aud depositing his scanty wardrobe and library in a pair of saddle-bags, set out for Hanover. Scarcely had he lost sight of his father's house, when a furious north-east storm began to beat upon the solitary traveller. The rain poured down, incessantly, for two days and nights. A necessity was laid upon him to be present at the commencement of the term. He, therefore, made such speed as he could, with his slow-paced Rozinante, over bad roads, through the pelting storm, and reached the place at the close of the second day, if not a "sorrowful knight," at least in a sorrowful condition. He joined his class the next day, and at once took the position in it which he has since held in the intellectual world. By the unanimous consent, both of teachers and classmates, he stood at the head of his associates in study, and was as far above them, then, in all that constitutes human greatness, as he is now. After a residence of two years at college, he spent a vacation at home. He had tasted the sweets of literature, and enjoyed the victories of intellectual effort. He loved the scholar's life. He felt keenly

for the condition of his brother Ezekiel, who was destined to remain on the farm and labor to lift the mortgage from the old homestead and furnish the means of his brother's support. Ezekiel was a farmer in spirit and in practice. He led his laborers in the field as he afterwards led his class in Greek. Daniel knew and appreciated his superior intellectual endowments. He resolved that his brother should enjoy the same privileges with himself. That night the two brothers retired to bed, but not to sleep. They discoursed of their prospects. Daniel utterly refused to enjoy the fruit of his brother's labor any longer. They were united in sympathy and affection, and they must be united in their pursuits. But how could they leave their beloved parents, in age and solitude, with no protector? They talked and wept and wept and talked till dawn of day. They dared not broach the matter to their father. Finally, Daniel resolved to be the orator upon the occasion. Judge Webster was then somewhat burdened with debt. He was advanced in age, and had set his heart upon having Ezekiel as his helper. The very thought of separation from both his sons was painful to him. When the proposition was made, he felt as did the patriarch of old, when he exclaimed, "Joseph is not * * * and will ye also take Benjamin away?" A family council was called. The mother's opinion was asked. She was a strong-minded, energetic woman. She was not blind to the superior endowments of her sons. With all a mother's partiality, however, she did not over-estimate their powers. She decided the matter at once. Her reply was: "I have lived long in the world, and have been happy in my children. If Daniel and Ezekiel will promise to take care of me, in my old age, I will consent to the sale of all our property, at once, and they may enjoy the benefit of that which remains after our debts are paid." This was a moment of intense interest to all the parties. Parents and children all mingled their tears together, and sobbed aloud at the thought of separation. The father yielded to the entreaties of the sons and the advice of his wife.

Daniel returned to college, and Ezekiel took his little bundle in his hand, and sought, on foot, the scene of his preparatory studies. In one year, he joined his younger brother in college. His intellect was of the highest order. In clear and comprehensive views of the subjects studied, he had no equal. He was deficient in no branch of study pursued in college. He was distinguished for classical literature. He also availed himself of private instruction in some departments of study. Prof. Shurtleff then had a class of students reciting to him, privately, in theology. Ezekiel Webster joined that class, and wrote dissertations upon subjects proposed by the Professor, who still

speaks with unabated admiration of his character, as an earnest, truthful and successful student. I once asked the same venerable teacher of the deportment of the younger brother in college. He replied: "Oh, sir, Daniel was as regular as the sun. He never made a misstep. He never stooped to do a mean act. He never countenanced, by his presence or by his conversation, any college irregularities.

After graduating at the early age of nineteen, Daniel Webster took charge of the academy in Fryeburg, Me. He left his father's house again, on horseback, with his whole worldly effects in a pair of saddle-bags. His salary was three hundred and fifty dollars a year. From such an income, how much, think you, would one of our modern dandies save, after supporting himself as a gentleman should live? Besides the severe labors of the school, Mr. Webster devoted his evenings to a still more irksome piece of drudgery. He recorded deeds in the county records for a moderate compensation. He transcribed, on an average, three deeds, each evening; and two large folios now exist, in his handwriting, as indubitable proofs of his industry. He received high commendation for his fidelity as a teacher. The records of the trustees bear testimony to their unqualified approbation of his labors and their sincere regret at his departure. At the close of the year, he visited his brother in college, and after paying his own debts, gave to Ezekiel the results of his year's labor, which amounted to one hundred dollars. The attachment of these brothers to each other was truly remarkable. They kept no separate purse, till they were established in business. They labored cheerfully for each other. Daniel submitted to the drudgery of copying deeds, and encroached upon the hours due to sleep, to secure the means of his brother's education. Ezekiel taught an evening school for sailors, in Boston, in addition to the fatigues of a large private school by day, to save money to defray, in part, his brother's expenses in completing his professional education. Behold how these brothers loved each other! Writing to his New Hampshire neighbors, Mr. Webster says: "Those of you who are the most advanced in age, have known my father and my family, and especially that member of it whose premature death inflicted a wound in my breast which is yet fresh and bleeding."

The cordial approbation of this brother was more to Daniel Webster than the applause of listening senates. But I cannot devote more time to these interesting reminiscences; I must return from my digression.

THE DIGNITY OF THE TEACHER'S WORK.

It is a pleasant fancy of Swedenborg, that angels in heaven are employed in teaching the youthful spirits that enter prematurely the sphere of immortality. It is no childish fancy that would assign the teacher's work to the choicest spirits of earth, and exalt this work to the rank of the most angelic of human employments. A proper idea of the dignity of his work is needful to the teacher as a motive to fidelity, in his perplexing, and often ill-requited labor; and especially to reconcile him to an employment, which by some strange mistake has come to be generally rated immeasurably below its proper rank. It is not easy to account for the fact, that the calling of the teacher is generally ranked, not only below the other professions, but even below some of the more common industrial pursuits. The origin of this preposterous notion may be found far back in some barbarous feudal age, when all peaceful occupations were held in contempt: when the office of *chaplain* and *king's fool* were interchangeable, and when some "Dominie Sampson" or "Ichabod Crane" was the impersonation of pedagogical dignity. But such a preposterous idea does not belong to an age of refinement. Public sentiment has considerably improved, of late years, and the employment of teachers has received a much more generous consideration. But there is still room for improvement. It is quite evident that our most gifted and aspiring youth, unless controlled by an imperative sense of duty, or compelled by stern necessity, will seek some calling which presents a fairer prospect of preferment.

The correction of public sentiment when it has once taken a wrong direction, is a work of time; years must elapse before the subject will be viewed in its true light; in the mean while, much will depend upon the character and qualifications of those who are engaged in this work. If they resort to teaching from merely mercenary motives, as a last resort, or to pass an idle winter, it will be a long time before the profession will enjoy a very large share of public favor; the teacher will be merely tolerated as a sort of necessary evil.

In the want of suitable encouragement from other sources, the teacher may find ample motive to fidelity in the dignity of his calling.

An employment is elevated in dignity in proportion to the importance of its subject, or the materials with which it has to do. The magistrate, or the commander of an army, ranks above the herdsman, for the one governs brutes, the other, men. The maker of chronometers takes rank above the blacksmith, because he is employed with more costly and delicate materials. Upon

this principle, the work of teaching, especially if we include in this term the work of the ministry, surpasses all other occupations in point of dignity. The farmer, the mechanic, the merchant, are employed with material and perishable things. The legal profession is busied with forms and precedents, with crimes and penalties, and, with the exception of its pleading, it has but little to do directly with mind. Medical skill is employed almost exclusively upon the outer man, the temporary habitation of the soul. But the subject of the teacher's work is mind, the masterpiece of the great Architect, delicate in structure, transcendent in value, immortal in destiny.

The employment of teaching, if rightly pursued, tends strongly to develop the better principles of our nature. This may be seen by contrasting the work of the teacher with other employments. The merchant or the stock-jobber, in every individual transaction in the routine of his daily occupation, has an eye to "Profit and Loss." This is his business. Such employment tends strongly to develop a covetous disposition. But the teacher is subject to no such sordid tendency. His daily duties are made up of efforts to cultivate and adorn the minds of his pupils, and to fit them for their high destiny. He must be bad indeed who does not improve under the influence of such an employment.

The triumphs of art over nature are the more easily achieved, since they are the conquest of *mind* over *matter*. But in the work of teaching, *mind* acts upon *mind*, and achieves its victories by the force of truth and reason upon intelligent, thinking beings. To curb the waywardness and rouse the flagging energies of the pupil, to awaken a thirst for knowledge, and set the timid and retiring on a career of improvement, is a work possessing all the elements of true dignity.

Philosophers tell us that thought is imperishable; that the faintest mental impressions are securely treasured up in the store-house of the soul, and need only a favorable condition to be distinctly reproduced upon the table of memory. If this be true, we have in this fact a thrilling illustration of the importance of teacher's work. He is tracing the lines of thought upon the susceptible mind of childhood, which "Time's effacing fingers" cannot erase. "I paint for futurity," said the old Grecian artist, when blamed for the tardiness of his work. The teacher's work is not to rescue from oblivion the changing lineaments of the countenance, and to give immortality to the transient beauties of the human face divine, but to impress upon the deathless spirit, the features of intellectual and moral beauty.

The Daguerrean artist places the polished metallic plate in the *focus of his* "Camera," and forthwith, as by magic, there starts

to view a perfect and unalterable impression of the original. Whether the countenance be radiant with smiles or clouded with sadness, beautiful or ugly, the magic pencil of nature draws it with unerring accuracy, and no art can improve the picture.

Let the teacher consider well what lines he traces upon the susceptible minds committed to his care, for the light of eternity will give distinctness and permanence to the image.

High moral principles and sincere piety are indispensable qualifications of the model teacher.

Maine, Dec. 29, 1852. ALPHA.

EDUCATION OF THE HEART.

Ye may rear the lofty temple,
And build it wide and high;
Its gilded spire may seem to rest
Against the vaulted sky,
But without a sure foundation
It cannot long remain,
While in its fall alone you read,
Your labor was in vain.

Thus while ye rear the standard
Of the intellect, the mind;
Thus while ye seek to make it all
That's noble and refined;
Say, would you from that standard
The mind should e'er depart?
Then lay the strong foundation sure,
And educate the heart.

Let high and holy teachings,
Let precepts bright and fair,
Pure thoughts and hallowed principle,
Be blent together there.
Bid all that is unholy,
Bid all of sin depart,
And in the love and truth of heaven,
O educate the heart.

Then on that bright pedestal
Go rear the lofty mind;
Forever shall the temple stand,
As noble and refined.
Then, then shall glory crown you,—
Aye, such as angels love,—
Bright blessings fall around you,
And God himself approve.

MARY H. E. CHASE.

West Yarmouth, 1853.

DRAWING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

EDUCATION, once considered a mechanical routine of committing to memory the contents of divers books, has somewhat changed its phase of being. Instead of the old implements of instruction, (i. e., the ferule and birch,) we have arrived at the idea that education is a science dependent on the full development of the body and mind; that it can only be excellent when it is thorough and deep; that it is not the parrotry of words, senseless to the utterer, and void of meaning as the jabbering of a monkey; but it is an association of thought and actions, expressed in a natural manner, and in words that have import both to the teacher and the pupil.

Of letters, few will deny the truthfulness of this proposition. But of that branch of education usually styled an accomplishment, but which we think as much an essential as any other branch of learning, the same is true to-day as twenty years ago. We allude to Drawing, taught on the most easy and mechanical mode possible. Imitate a few lithographed patterns, or execute some bad Monochromatic Stencilling, and lo! we arrive at the ultimatum of Art,—that Divine Art for which men have dared poverty, scorn and contempt in life, and been worshipped for the productions when the results were useless to them and theirs; that Art which many a devoted child of God has spent his life to acquire, that he might breathe forth in labor the conceptions of his mind; that Art which has numbered among its children some of the noblest of earth-born, of which were the Angelos and Raphaels of the Middle Ages, the Allstons, Robertses, Ettys, Powerses, and a whole host of others in our own day; that Art whose sublime power has lifted up to a god-like stature, many an inhabitant of the lowly plains of the earth.

That beautiful fashioner of immortal forms that draws around its developments the admiring eyes of woman, and the critical glances of man, is still in its babyhood, still in its swaddling clothes, and all because it is held in such light estimation by the very people who derive most benefit from it. Ask the Committee of a Common School to provide a teacher for this branch of instruction, and ten chances to one you will get as a reply, that it is useless stuff, or, at best, are accommodated with a set of bad copies that violate every principle of artistic beauty or nice virtual development of form. There are very honorable exceptions to this statement—but we challenge fearlessly the test of the truthfulness of the assertion, that not one in ten who teach drawing in our public schools would *draw* correctly the lamp by whose light they pursue their evening studies.

This may appear over-stated, and we ask those who doubt its truth, to visit any of the academies or schools of general education, and examine the results for themselves.

What is the cause? A very simple one. Drawing is not taught. It is only mechanical execution, or imitation of a thought that is the expression of another's mind.

Drawing is the art wherewith we express our ideas of form on a flat surface. To cultivate it, there is as much need of intellectual power and exercise as in solving problems in mathematics. Drawing is based on form; its elements are simple, its laws few, and easy to understand, its uses without limit. There is not a single branch of commercial enterprise in which it is not available. There is not a science in which it is not required. There is not a country that is entirely without it. It should be taught in our public schools, and taught in such a way, that when the pupils go forth into the busy scenes of life, they may be enabled to make use of it with ease and certainty. To the teacher, it is an indispensable power; it is needed often for illustrations in subjects that can only be given imperfectly without the use of it.

We often cry out about our want of taste, are very emphatic in blaming people for their want of appreciation of our own merits; buy all French furniture, or nearly so, or do something that is not quite so honorable,—borrow their designs; while if they were our own, and made the same use of by others, it would be stealing, and we should declare that they have no artistic talent. To some, this may appear truth. But for our own part, we declare that the children of this land, taken in the aggregate, have more refined innate artistic power, than those of any other country in the world. And we look forward to the day when America shall shine in Art, shall glory in the sublime productions of her sons and daughters.

She has, however, much to do ere that time can come. She must introduce the study of Drawing into all her public schools, and have it taught in such a way as will bring out the powers of those who are instructed there. This necessity has been deeply felt in the mother country, and only within a few months has the work been put in active operation.

The causes that have led to the movement will be understood by the following Extracts from a Report before a Committee of the House of Commons of some year since. "W. J. Smith, of the firm of Harding, Smith & Co., Pell Mell, says,—'There are many articles we are importing from France, which, were we in possession of designs, might be equally well manufactured here. I do not think a French article would sell without reference to its particular merit.' James Morrison, Esq., M. P., of the firm of Morrison & Co., says,—'I have been well acquaint-

ed with the manufactures of this country for more than twenty years. I have found, generally, that we have been much superior to foreign countries in the general manufacture, but greatly inferior in the arts of design. The great mass of the community in this country, not merely the lower and middle classes, but a great portion of the upper classes, have not had their taste cultivated in proportion to their education.' Another gentleman being asked to what cause he attributed the superiority of the manufacture of French gloves, replied,—"To the knowledge the manufacturer has of the shape of the hand.'"

This as true of America as of England, and is a reproach to both countries. Let both strive to remedy this evil, beginning in the right place, at the foundation, and a few years will show mighty results.

For the first year there is not the least need of copy of any sort. Begin with the combination of form; perfect in that, go to perspective art, and afterwards either take nature for the model, or the rich prints of a well-cultivated imagination.

Wherever manufacture seeks to expand the sale of its productions, art will be needed to beautify, and the laborer, to produce the highest kind of beauty, must possess a knowledge of Drawing.

We complain of the want of native designers, but give them no chance to grow up among us. Let Drawing be introduced as a branch of instruction into all our public schools, and we shall no longer need to rely on other lands for our artistic designs.

"The works, no less than the word of God, proclaim the doctrine, that God designed the world for the benefit of the many in contradistinction to the few. What all possess in common, is more truly noble than the small part of creation which any individual fences round and calls his own. The laws of Nature are alike subservient to all, and our bounteous mother Earth pours forth her gifts with no regard to distinctions of birth or blood.

All alike breathe the vital air, and all possess in common the world of beauty and sublimity.

He who can appropriate to himself his full share of the ornaments of nature, need not repine that he is unable to decorate his abode with expensive works of art. One who is unable to adorn a mansion with marble columns, may cover his cottage with climbing flowers; and if he cannot look within upon splendid mirrors and costly paintings, he may look abroad upon the green earth and cerulean heavens. Taste often enjoys, more than the owner, and without labor, embellishments which vanity [illegible] and self-denial."—*Prof. Olmsted.*

From the Boston Daily Advertiser.

SECOND ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

THE second annual report of the Superintendent, though widely different from the first, is equally practical in its character, and promises to be equally useful in its results. It contains suggestions, which, without producing any violent change, are calculated to add greatly to the improvement of the schools already established. The general aim of the report is thus stated by Mr. Bishop:

"Turning away, for the present, from the material view of school buildings, rooms and their various fixtures and furnishings, I shall aim at taking a stand-point, from which the practical workings of the interior operations of our schools may be observed, and from that position shall endeavor to trace the outlines, at least, of the *laws of human growth*, as they manifest themselves in the various developments of children during their school-going age, in order that these laws may be more generally regarded in conducting our schools.

"The great truths which are called the laws of physical, intellectual and moral growth, are not matters of conjecture. They lie before us, traced in imperishable characters by the Creator's hand, on the ever-unfolding leaves of the book of human nature, whose pages are continually inviting us to study them with the docility of children, and ever directing us to the Great Teacher of mankind, for those lessons of wisdom which alone can guide us aright in conducting the delicate processes of early education."

The report proceeds on the ground that there are certain established laws of growth or development, both of the powers of the mind and body, and that it is the part of true wisdom to ascertain by careful observation, what these laws are, that the educator, taking care not to violate them, may become a co-laborer with the great husbandman by whom they were established and maintained. The truth of this general proposition is so obvious, that there hardly appears to be any thing of novelty about it, and yet I do not remember to have ever seen it distinctly set forth before, by any writer on the subject of education. It opens a new and vast field of inquiry, upon which Mr. Bishop professes to have barely entered, and to which he earnestly invites the attention of all who are engaged in the same work. It is not to be denied that the cause of education has suffered much by requiring children to study subjects and text-books at a period when the faculties of their minds were not sufficiently matured to enable them to grasp them. If Mr. Bishop, by showing the order in which the different powers of the mind are developed, and the perioes of life at which they are usually

manifested, can rightly adapt the several departments of stu to the pupil, so that each shall be presented to him, neither t soon nor too late, but at the appointed time, he will have p formed a labor for which all future generations will have cau to be grateful. Children have been often compelled to spe years in attempting to learn what at their period of life it w impossible for them to comprehend, and which they comp hended at last, not in consequence of their long toil and lab but simply because the period had arrived in the developme of their minds, when this became possible. Such a proces most irksome and discouraging. It cannot be doubted that t Creator in his wisdom has so ordained things, that studies m be provided which are adapted to the child in all periods of l life; and there is no problem in education more important th that which determines what these studies are, and the order which they should be arranged.—Mr. Bishop's report is full valuable thoughts and suggestions upon this subject, which c hardly fail to be followed up by himself and others, and lead most important results. In the language of Mr. Bishop:

"In urging that the subject of education should be studied as science, embracing those great principles in accordance with wh human nature is gradually unfolded from infancy to maturity, we only falling in with the uniform practice of men engaged in promoti the other great interests of society.

"In all ages of the world, for example, men employed in cultivati the fruits of the earth have been striving to ascertain the laws of v *etable growth*, in order that they may bring the various plants wh contribute to the wants of man, to the highest degree of perfecti And all progress hitherto made in the science of Agriculture, and that beautiful kindred branch, Horticulture, has been made by obse ing the time and the order of the successive developments of each s cies of plants, and the modes of cultivation most favorable to th growth, until repeated observations and experiments have furnished facts from which a careful generalization has deduced the uniform la of vegetable growth. All skilful tillers of the soil place implicit c fidence in these laws, and follow these indications of nature in adapt their cultivation to each successive stage of the development of th grain, which presents 'first the blade, then the ear, then the full c in the ear.'

"In the same way, from the very dawn of civilization, men h sought with equal zeal a knowledge of the laws of growth, pertaining the *animal kingdom*. They have studied the nature and the habits the various species of domestic animals, for the purpose of ascertain the modes of treatment which harmonize most fully with the known pr ciples of animal life. Thus men approach nature, seeking with docil what she teaches on these points, that they may comply with her instr tions, and so train each kind of animals in accordance with the laws of most perfect development, that they may rear the best specimens of *different species.*

"For much stronger reasons, and for much higher purposes, it would seem, we ought to inquire what are the Creator's laws of human growth, which regulate the mysterious unfoldings of the physical forms of children, the powers of their minds and the feelings of their hearts. To every thoughtful mind it must be obvious, that these various developments begin to manifest themselves in accordance with the Creator's established laws, each of their manifestations appearing at the time and in the order of His divine appointment.

"The gradual expansion of the outward forms of children, and the increasing activity and vigor of their inward powers, are carried forward in accordance with the permanent laws of their growth, as truly as the opening flowers and the ripening fruits approach maturity, in obedience to the laws of vegetable life. As the corn rises from the germ through all the successive stages of its growth, 'first the blade, then the ear, then the full corn in the ear,' so the child's faculties are developed, each appearing at its appropriate time, and in the natural order during his progress towards maturity, and every instance of wrong training as he is guided along the course of his education, is sure to leave its unhappy traces upon his character. The consequences of all bad management of a child, in training the organs of his body, the powers of his mind, or the affections of his heart, will appear in his manhood, having injured the robustness of his constitution, weakened the vigor of his intellect, or impaired the moral tone of his spirit.

"All admit the general truth of these statements in regard to the bodies of children who have suffered from neglect in their earlier years. When gross mismanagement has stinted the growth of a child, or distorted his limbs or his form, we are all accustomed to acknowledge the existence of the laws of physical growth, and to trace these deformities to their true causes, and to deplore the ignorance which produced them, if we do not take any measures to prevent the repetition of the evils.

"But when a similar mismanagement at home or in school, has dwarfed or impaired the powers of a child's mind, we are slow to trace the effect back to its cause, as in the preceding case. We find ourselves half inclined to believe that some mysterious, undefined power or fatality has doomed these faculties to defective action and feebleness.

"And still more blind are we to the inevitable working of this law of cause and effect in human growth, when mismanagement has injured a child's moral feelings, and so perverted all his higher aspirations, that the nobler elements of his nature have been brought into subjection to his inferior propensities, and he seems to do evil, from the mere love of doing it.

"Hence, finding ourselves living under a constitution of divinely appointed laws, which pervade the whole world and regulate all its wonderful changes, we ought to strive earnestly to obtain so much knowledge of these all-pervading laws as will enable us to bring our efforts for the advancement of education into harmony with their appointed operations. For, placed as we are, in a system of things where every event in the material, mental and moral world is preceded by its cause, and followed by its effect, we cannot reasonably hope for the highest success in training the young, unless our course of instruction and our methods of pursuing it, shall harmonize with those estab-

lished laws of God, which indicate the time, and the means of promoting the most healthful development of children. These laws he has sustained from the beginning, and still continues their ceaseless and resistless operations, forming that endless chain of cause and effect, which so mysteriously binds together the influences exerted upon childhood, with their legitimate consequences, which are sure to appear in the later periods of life. We need to study and to comprehend, as fully as we can, these beneficent laws of human growth, for the purpose of guiding aright our efforts for the improvement of ourselves, and of the pupils placed under our care, in order that we may not ignorantly violate these laws, and thus bring upon ourselves and upon those who receive their education at our hands, the inevitable consequences of such violations."

Mr. Bishop, in the application of his general principles, in considering some instances in which the laws of physical growth are violated, after speaking of the "sight and eye," of the "temperature of school-rooms," and of the "ventilation of school-rooms," proceeds to the "classification of the pupils." On all these topics his views are practical and highly valuable.

In relation to a course of studies, he says:

"A Course of School Studies.—It would seem that a course of studies should be arranged and pursued in accordance with *the three following general principles.*

"*First.* It should be carefully adapted to the progressive development of the various intellectual powers of the children, in the successive stages of their advancement.

"*Second.* It should be pursued in that *necessary* order in which a knowledge of the *first* study prepares the mind of the learner to understand the *second*, and an acquaintance with the *second* prepares the way for the *third*, and so on throughout the course.

"*Third.* Whenever, without violating either of these principles, *one* of *two* or more studies may be arranged *first* in the course, that one should always precede which is most practically *useful* in the ordinary business of life."

He then proceeds to speak of these general principles, each of which is very fully and ably considered, and the Report closes with a few remarks on the teaching of morals in the public schools.

I am glad to see that the School Committee have ordered an edition of three thousand copies of this valuable document, and hope that those who feel a special interest in the subject of education will be able to provide themselves with the Report, that they may examine it in detail.

A Parent.

From the Ohio Journal of Education.

GOVERNMENT IN SCHOOLS.

In every system of government, there must be a governor, and the governed. The same is true in relation to schools. The former is the teacher, and the latter, the taught. Every governor should have been well governed, and know well how to govern himself, in order that he may govern those under his care. He who would govern, should first learn obedience. Every teacher should bear in mind, that he is dealing with rational, thinking, reasoning beings, and should treat them as such. He should endeavor to make them clearly understand that it is their duty to do what he requires, and it will be cheerfully done. The obligation of duty is a much stronger incentive to do right than the prospect of a reward, and much more effectual than the fear of punishment, in securing obedience and respect. The principle of duty may be urged upon the young, by frequent appeals to their conscience. There is in every human being, a natural, inherent preponderance to do right, and the pendulum of every heart is inclined to gravitate towards virtue. The principle of right is surely fixed in every heart, and by proper culture, will germinate and grow into vigor and luxuriance. The willow-branch of childhood is easily bent, and made to assume any direction; but the oak that has approximated to maturity, is stubborn, and refuses to yield to the hand of instruction.

Encouragement is another great element in the government of a school. Kind words and a little commendation, (not flattery,) are great stimulants in the school-room. They secure the good will of the scholars, and cause them to feel that their good conduct is approved. A teacher should always be ready to approbate the right, and disapprobate the wrong, though more forward to approve than condemn, and should always see the good actions of his scholars, if not all their bad ones. He should express his approval, not grudgingly as though it cost him an effort, but cheerfully, convincing his scholars that he appreciates and esteems their conduct.

A teacher should never *hire* his scholars. Rewards, and more especially *pecuniary* rewards, tend to make them labor solely for the reward, while the love of knowledge should itself be a sufficient lure, from the consideration that knowledge is the only proper reward. Knowledge should be sought for the benefit it bestows, and not for some other object held out as a reward.

Never punish a scholar by trying to degrade him. A teacher should not be given to fault-finding. The surest way to discourage scholars, is continually to find fault, and underrate their

abilities. When the teacher has to correct, he should make his scholars all feel that it is right, and that he doing his duty. If the offender feels this, he will need less punishment, and even feel grateful to his teacher for inflicting less than he imagines he really deserves. A twofold advantage is thus realized. The teacher retains the affection of the scholar, and secures his obedience in the future. Corporal punishment should only be resorted to in extreme cases, after all other means have proved abortive; and the outlandish practice of compelling scholars to stand on one foot, hold up a billet of wood, lie on the floor, sit under the table, etc., cannot be too severely abominated.

Were I called upon to give in brief what the experience of several years in the school-room has taught me, and what I consider the best rules for governing a school, I would say, govern by appealing to the duties that conscience imposes, by approbating whatever you see that is right, by bestowing no rewards of a pecuniary nature, by showing no partiality, by no scolding or threatening, by using the rod only as a dernier resort, and as the only means of corporal punishment; and above all things, by setting an example before scholars, worthy of their imitation. A teacher who pursues this method, will be loved and esteemed by his scholars, and will certainly secure their obedience and respect.

OUR HOURS ARE ANGELS.

Each hour is like an Angel, which, with wings,
Comes from, and goes to, Heaven; yet empty, ne'er
Comes or returns, but some occasion brings,
And hastens back to Heaven, the tale to bear
Of evil, or fresh store to treasure there.

Wrestle, as with an Angel, with each Hour,
And hold him; though he seem a child of air,
Yet he will in the struggle give thee power,
And, though the flesh grows weak, will leave a heavenly dower.

J. G. WHITTIER.

RESOLUTION.

The wise and active conquer difficulties
By daring to attempt them. Sloth and folly
Shiver and sink at sights of toil and hazard,
And make the impossibility they fear.

THE HONEST BOY.

A gentleman from the country placed his son with a dry goods merchant in —— street. For a time all went well. At length a lady came to the store to purchase a silk dress, and the young man waited on her. The price demanded was agreed to, and he proceeded to fold the goods. He discovered, before he had finished, a flaw in the silk, and pointing it out to the lady said,

"Madam, I deem it my duty to tell you there is a fracture in the silk." Of course she did not take it.

The merchant overheard the remark, and immediately wrote to the father of the young man to come and take him home; "for," said he, "he will never make a merchant."

The father, who had ever reposed confidence in his son, was much grieved, and hastened to be informed of his deficiencies.

"Why will he not make a merchant?" asked he.

"Because he has no tact," was the answer. "Only a day or two ago, he told a lady, voluntarily, who was buying silk of him, that the goods were damaged, and I lost the bargain. Purchasers must look out for themselves. If they cannot discover flaws, it would be foolishness in me to tell them of their existence."

"And is that all the fault?" asked his parent.

"Yes," answered the merchant; "he is very well in other respects."

"Then I love my son better than ever, and I thank you for telling me of the matter; I would not have him another day in your store for the world."

THE BATTLE OF LIFE.

We have often been impressed by the deep significance of the phrase which Dickens has given as a title to one of his Christmas stories, "The Battle of Life." It is full of solemn meanings. All our hours, from the cradle to the grave, are but a series of antagonisms. Hunger, fatigue, sickness, temptation, sin, remorse, sorrow—these are the strong powers with which we must wage continual war. Foes beset us from without and within, and make life one long and earnest battle. But there are victories to be won on the field, more glorious than those which crimsoned Marathon and Waterloo. Evil habits may be subdued—fiery actions brought under the control of principle—temptations resisted—self-denial cheerfully sustained, and life itself consecrated to high and holy purposes. To triumph over

the infirmities of a perverted nature, and render life, once deformed by passion and stained by sin, beautiful with love made manifest in deeds of beneficence, is worthier our ambition than all the blood-wrought heroisms that ever linked a name to a world's remembrance. Every day witnesseth triumphs such as these—yet fame proclaims them not. What matters it? In the serene depths of these all-conquering spirits, God's peace abides, and harmonies are heard, such as the angels make when they welcome the victorious soul from the conflicts of this to the raptures of the heavenly world.

Resident Editors' Table.

GEORGE ALLEN, Jr., ... *Boston*,
C. J. CAPEN, ... *Dedham*,
} RESIDENT EDITORS. {
ELBRIDGE SMITH, *Cambridge*.
E. S. STEARNS, *W. Newton*.

WE regret to record the resignation of Levi Reed, Esq., as Principal of the Washington School, Roxbury. He has felt obliged to take this step on account of changes in the organization of the school, by which his duties, already arduous, would become more burdensome, and his health, which has suffered much during twenty years of hard service in teaching, in consequence be endangered.

Although the loss of his services as an able teacher, and as a co-worker in the cause of education, is a subject of deep regret, yet we may congratulate him upon the course he has taken, trusting that in a pursuit more congenial to physical improvement, and, we may add, more remunerative, he may realize a permanent restoration of his health, and a prolonged period of usefulness. His exit from the profession will leave a vacancy which will not soon be filled, whether we consider the immediate sphere of his labors, from which he will retire with so much honor, or his usefulness in the cause of education, to advance which he has ever been ready to spend whatever of time and strength it was in his power to bestow.

Mr. Reed has been a teacher in Norfolk County for nearly twenty years, during thirteen of which he has taught in Roxbury, the most of the time as Principal of the Washington School, which under his management has been sustained with consummate ability, and which, in establishing the widely known reputation of Roxbury for her excellent schools, has not been surpassed by any school in the town.

To conduct a school of from four to five hundred pupils, many of whom, coming from a low grade in society, are not easily managed, requires unerring judgment, firmness, energy, and *oftentimes* great promptness of action and much physical strength. *The position is* one of great responsibility, and can only be sus-

tained by hard labor, fatigue, anxiety, and watchfulness; and the Principal of such a school is fortunate if those to whom he should look for support and encouragement have a due regard to this fact. To have fulfilled the expectations of his fellow citizens for so long a period, and to have answered the requirements of such a school, successfully struggling with all its difficulties, falls to the lot of few teachers, and entitles one to deep gratitude and permanent honor.

Mr. Reed will be long remembered by the citizens of Roxbury as a laborious, energetic, and faithful teacher.

His fellow teachers of Norfolk County, and others in the State who have enjoyed his acquaintance, will deem this notice inadequate to the occasion, should no mention be made of the interest which he has taken in the cause of education without the immediate sphere of his school duties. The Massachusetts Teachers' Association found in him one of its earliest and ablest supporters, and on a late occasion he proved himself an able advocate of its claims; its highest interests have always commanded his best efforts, and its highest honors were awaiting him. The teachers of Norfolk County, many of whom have in times past derived benefit from his example and advice, will deeply regret his departure from among them, and will feel grateful to him for his efforts in establishing and sustaining an association of teachers in that county.

Those who have had the best opportunities to witness his career as a teacher, feel justified in the assertion that few teachers have performed so extensive and arduous services. He has ever been found competent for discipline and instruction, under whatever adverse circumstances, and an example for faithfulness, diligence, and punctuality. May he on retiring from the field, enjoy the fruit of all his labor in the consciousness of a life well spent, and may he experience in his new pursuit that success to which his past services so abundantly entitle him.

SECOND ANNUAL REPORT *of the Superintendent of Public Schools of the City of Boston.*

WE have carefully read the Second Report of the Superintendent, and we confess ourselves highly pleased. It evinces on the part of Mr. Bishop, not only ability and sagacity as a systematizer of general educational principles, but it demonstrates his familiar acquaintance with the requisites and conditions of judicious and successful mental culture.

It may be regarded, we should say, as supplementary to the first Report of the same officer, in which he submitted to the

School Committee his view and plan of a proper system of organization for the public schools, with other suggestions pertaining especially to external and material modifications. These recommendations having been adopted with great unanimity by the City Government as a part of their acknowledged policy, Mr. Bishop in his Second Report proceeds to consider the system of popular education more in detail; confining himself to the discussion of topics relating to the physical and intellectual welfare of the pupil; or, as it is well expressed in his own language, "turning away, for the present, from the material view of school buildings, rooms and their various fixtures and furnishings, I shall aim at taking a stand-point, from which the practical workings of the interior operations of our schools may be observed."—(Report, pp. 4 and 5.)

There is a right mode of conducting the education of children and youth; this right mode is in accordance with the principles of nature and reason; these natural principles are to be arrived at by a careful investigation of all that is known in this department, as the results either of theory or of experiment; and thus, the work of educating assumes the rank of a science, with established principles and laws of its own, by the due observance of which the processes of operation are made to harmonize with the best development of the physical, intellectual, and moral nature of the pupil. This is, if we correctly apprehend it, the object, and, in brief, the scope of Mr. Bishop's discussion of "the laws of human growth." The propositions are fairly and clearly stated and sustained by sound argument.

The remaining topics of the report, which are evidently the applications of these primary principles thus developed, we can but briefly notice. They are *the proper method of admitting light into the school-room.* The entrance of light through windows *in front* of the pupils being condemned as injurious to the sight, as also the long-continued confinement of the eye to the book —*the importance of careful and constant attention to the temperature of the school-room—the absolute necessity of free and thorough ventilation,* the Superintendent earnestly contending for at least *four cubic feet of fresh air* per minute for each individual, as necessary for healthful respiration—*the classification of pupils,* and the *proper arrangement of a course of school studies.* The remarks on the two last mentioned topics are so eminently practical that we shall venture to dwell upon them for a moment.

We cannot do better than to quote the "General Principles" in accordance with which Mr. Bishop would have a course of school studies arranged.

"*First.* It should be carefully adapted to the progressive development of the various intellectual powers of the children, in the successive stages of their advancement.

"*Second.* It should be pursued in that *necessary* order in which a knowledge of the *first* study prepares the mind of the learner to understand the *second*, and an acquaintance with the *second* prepares the way for the *third*, and so on throughout the course.

"*Third.* Whenever, without violating either of these principles, *one* of *two* or more studies may be arranged *first* in the course, that one should always precede which is most practically *useful* in the ordinary business of life."—(Report, pp. 35 and 36.)

In accordance with these principles, the Report sketches an outline of a course of study in harmony with the progressive development of the physical and mental powers of the child. It condemns the forcing process sometimes employed on account of its tendency to excite an unusual and unhealthy precocity, ruinous alike both to body and mind. Many of the ideas advanced in this part of the Report are somewhat at variance with the notions commonly entertained; but they will commend themselves, we think, to the enlightened judgment of the reflective reader. We are satisfied that, were the views here presented more generally adopted by *teachers, parents, and school committees*, the pupilage of our youth would be spent vastly more to their advantage.

We commend the Report to the careful perusal of teachers and of others interested in school instruction. It abounds in valuable suggestions, obviously the results of extensive experience and observation, and of mature reflection. B.

The following extract from the communication of a friend in Nantucket, will prove that the teachers there are as earnestly devoted to self-improvement, and to the cause of education, as in any other part of the State.

"The Nantucket Co. Teachers' Association" was organized on the 20th of Dec., 1852. It consists of a large majority of the teachers resident in the county, both those of public and of private schools.

It admits to membership any professional teacher residing in the county.

It admits honorary members, and gives them all the privileges of ordinary members, except that of voting.

The meetings of the Association are held at present, once a fortnight, at private dwellings. They partake of a social, as well as of a literary character. The regular exercises consist of the reading of written essays, and of extemporaneous discussions—all on subjects connected with school-keeping.

The constitution of the Association provides for at least one public meeting in each year.

The first public *meeting* was held on Thursday, Feb. 10, 1853.

At that meeting, an introductory address was delivered by the President, wherein he alluded to the formation of the Association, and then pointedly enforced the necessity of training the reasoning powers, as the object of school instruction, rather than the *mere* storing of the mind with facts.

Addresses having a practical bearing on the interests of education, were also delivered by Messrs. Alfred Macy, James M. Bunker, Edward M. Gardner, and George G. Ide,—all members of the Association. The audience listened with most respectful attention throughout, and it is to be hoped that some good was accomplished, both for the teachers composing the Association, and for the community, in whose behalf they labor.

The officers of the Association for the current year, are, Augustus Morse, President; John Boadle and Anna Gardner, Vice Presidents; Edward M. Gardner, Treasurer; George G. Ide, Secretary.

NORMAL SCHOOLS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

There will soon be five professional schools for the training of teachers, in operation in the State of Massachusetts—three supported by the State, at an expense of $7,000 a year, located at West Newton, Bridgewater and Westfield; one in Boston supported by the city, at an expense of $4,000, for the training of female teachers; and a fifth, the New England Normal Institute, will be opened at Lancaster, in May, to teachers or persons willing to become teachers, in any part of the Union. The last is a private enterprise, and will be under the direction of Prof. William Russell, formerly editor of the American Journal of Education, and Principal of the Merrimack Normal Institute. He will be assisted by Mr. D. P. Colburn, for several years a teacher in the Bridgewater Normal School, and by a number of teachers and lecturers in the several studies pursued in the Institute. Among them are Prof. Greene, Prof. Guyot, and Prof. Agassiz.

Since the opening of the State Normal Schools in 1839, upward of two thousand teachers have graduated from them, and engaged in the service of the common schools.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL OF CONNECTICUT.

The first session of the Winter Term of the State Normal School commenced on Wednesday, Dec. 29th, 1852, and will close on the 12th of March, 1853. There are now one hundred and ten pupils in attendance, while a large number still enrolled as members of the institution, are engaged in teaching common schools in different parts of the State. Five hundred and one pupils have been connected with the School since it opened on *the* 13th of May, 1850.

NEW YORK STATE NORMAL SCHOOL.

The New York State Normal School established in 1844, is located at Albany, and is supported by an annual appropriation of $10,000. The Superintendent of Common Schools, in his report, dated January 4, 1853, remarks that "the policy of a class of institutions exclusively for the education of teachers, has been amply vindicated in the experience of this and other States. Little felt at first, three thousand two hundred and thirty pupils have received the benefits of instruction in it, and now are extending a knowledge of the better systems and improved processes of instruction thus acquired, throughout the State. Two hundred and seventy-six pupils attended the last term, representing more counties than at any preceding period. A thorough conviction of its utility is now entertained by the great body of the educators of the State." The Superintendent recommends the establishment of another Normal School to be located in some of the western counties.

NORMAL SCHOOL IN PHILADELPHIA.

The Normal School in Philadelphia was opened in 1848, for the training of female teachers for the public schools of the city, under its charge, and is maintained at an annual expense of $5,000. The institution has grown in public confidence, as its utility has stood the test of experience, and the city is now erecting a spacious building for its accommodation, and the Model School annexed. Four hundred and ten pupils had been enrolled since its commencement, up to August, 1852.

NORMAL SCHOOL IN MICHIGAN.

The Normal School in Michigan is located at Ypsilanti, and is opened for the reception of pupils. We have no information as to the number of pupils in attendance. The Legislature has appropriated twenty-five sections of salt spring lands as the Normal School Fund.

GOOD NEWS.

The committee appointed to petition the Legislature for aid in behalf of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association, have succeeded in procuring for that purpose an annual grant of three hundred dollars for five years.

Richard W. Swan, M. A., formerly for nine years a teacher of the classics at Exeter Academy, and lately a tutor in Williams College, has established a Family School for boys in Williamstown, Mass.

Its design will be, to afford to a limited number of pupils, the best possible facilities for thorough education in the English branches, and in the studies preparatory to a Collegiate course. The French, German, Spanish, and Italian languages will be taught without additional charge.

Board, Tuition, (including Washing, Fuel and Lights,) Two Hundred Dollars per annum. Payments quarterly in advance.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES FOR THE SPRING OF 1853.

At Lunenburg, April 4th—9th.
At Oxford, April 11th—16th.
At Templeton, May 2d—7th.
At Middleborough, May 9th—14th.

PRIZE CIRCULAR OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE.

THE American Institute of Instruction offer to members of the Institute and to female teachers, prizes for Original Essays on the following subjects:

1. "The means of producing a Symmetrical Development of the Mental Faculties."

2. By what means can the Teacher best advance his own Culture?

To the best Essay, on *either* of these subjects, a prize of *Twenty-Five Dollars* will be awarded; to the best on the *other* subject, a prize of *Fifteen Dollars*. An additional prize of *Ten Dollars* is offered for the best Essay on any other subject having a practical relation to teaching. Each essay should be distinguished by some motto or device, and be accompanied by a sealed envelope bearing the same motto or device, and enclosing the real address of the author.

The Essays must be forwarded by the first of June, to the subscriber, *Central Place*, BOSTON, who will place them in the hands of the Committee. The award will be made known, and the successful Essays read, at the next annual meeting of the Institute in August. They will also be regarded as the property of the Society. The unsuccessful Essays, if applied for, will be returned to their authors with the envelopes unopened. If no composition of sufficient merit should be offered, no prize will be awarded.

In behalf of the Directors,

Boston, Jan. 15, 1853. SOLOMON ADAMS.

THE

MASSACHUSETTS TEACHER.

Vol. VI. No. 5.] M. P. CASE, Editor of this Number. [May, 1853.

HOME TRAVELS OF A PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER.

Early in the month of April, 1852, I received an appointment as teacher of a primary school in the town of B. I had long looked forward to such a situation with earnest desire, and had carefully studied the various branches of common-school learning. I was gratified at my success in obtaining the appointment over several competitors, who were all older than myself, and some of whom had had experience in teaching. But this feeling soon changed to a deep and very painful sense of the great responsibility, which I had assumed, I feared, too thoughtlessly. I felt as if I had, in a giddy moment, placed myself under a weight from which I could not escape, and which would certainly crush me to the ground. I had previously taken much pleasure in the society of some of the beautiful children who went to the school, and would amuse them with chit-chat, stories, and games, by the hour together, myself the most amused of all. But now the very sight of them became painful. I seemed to see, not the *present child*, but the *future man* or *woman*, and that man or woman, intelligent, virtuous, and happy, or ignorant, degraded, and miserable, according to the character of my instructions and influence. And then my mind darted forward to the endless existence which was to follow the scenes of this short life. I seemed to myself like one of the three fatal sisters, who, according to old mythology, were constrained, whether willingly or unwillingly, to spin out the eternal destinies of men.

To get relief, I first took my school-books and carefully reviewed all the studies which I should have occasion to teach in my school. But this met only a part of my duties. I then read all the books on the art of teaching and the duties of the teacher, which I owned or could borrow; such as the "School and Schoolmaster," Abbott's "Teacher," Hall's "Lectures," Page's 'Theory and Practice of Teaching," and some odd numbers of the "Annals of Education." But these books, which had before seemed to me very valuable, now appeared, in my excited state of mind, to have quite changed their character. Precepts which I had before thought to be quite satisfactory, now seemed to me to be most provokingly indefinite, and some of them even as if written on purpose to tantalize. "The teacher, as he prizes the moral welfare of his pupils, must beware alike of being too severe, and of being too lax, in his discipline." Very good! But what is it be too severe, and what, to be too lax? How shall I know where to draw the lines? And again, "While it is your business to aid your pupils in all their intellectual efforts, yet you must be very careful, unless you would condemn them to mental imbecility, not to give them too much assistance." Of course. *Too much* assistance must be an evil; the very language employed expresses this. But *how much* assistance is too much? By what measurement can I find this out? And so of numberless other directions.

It then occurred to me, that, in Germany and some other countries, journeymen are required to travel and observe the various methods of practising their trades in different places, before they can be admitted to the rank of master-workmen. And, as I had still a fortnight before I must take my school, and was acquainted with most of the teachers in the vicinity, I thought I could not do better, than to employ the fine weather of opening Spring in visiting their schools, and in learning, by conversation and observation, those measures of the *too much* and the *too little*, and those points of method, which books speak of as so very important, and yet do not condescend to teach. I was everywhere kindly received; and though disappointed in some respects, found my time not only very pleasantly, but also very profitably employed. One great advantage, in addition to those which I had anticipated, was the restoration of my mind, spirits, and health to their usual tone, before the commencement of my labors. As some young teachers may not have the fortnight at command for personal observation, and might therefore be willing to see some things through my eyes, I have been induced to give some account of my travels, but with such changes *of names that* there can be no violation of confidence.

The first schools which I visited, were those of Miss Mason *and Miss Clark.* These two ladies kept adjoining schools and

were intimate friends; but they had opposite defects in their methods of teaching, and each had been led by her clear observation of her friend's defects and her strong effort to avoid them, to carry her own defects to their very extreme. As I entered Miss Mason's school, she was just calling out a young class to read and spell from the Second Reader. The compiler very needlessly, as it seems to me, had selected the words to be spelled from the reading lesson, and had marshalled them in columns above. The method of the recitation was the following. Each scholar first read all the words in these columns, spelling them as he read, so that they were thus spelled over, with open books, six times by the class. "This is done," said Miss Mason, "so that they may have no difficulty with these words when they meet them in the reading lesson." And sure enough, those who had been attentive to this preliminary exercise, had no difficulty afterwards in reading these words, however faulty their reading may have been in other respects. The short reading lesson was then read over three times. The teacher then asked them some simple questions about it, which for the most part they answered very well. After this, they were directed to close their books, and the words in the columns were then given out to them to spell. Of course they had now become so familiar with them, that they spelled most of them correctly. The exercise, in general, passed off very well. And yet it was obvious, that it had been conducted in such a way, that a bright scholar could have met all its requisitions perfectly, without a particle of previous study. He must be a dull boy, if after nine repetitions, with open book, of the words he was to spell, he could not at the tenth repetition, with the book closed, spell his word correctly. And, after the reading lesson had been read three times in the class, it would have been strange if he could not give some account of it. Miss Mason's method in other recitations was similar. "How many are nine and eight?" The class went busily to counting upon their fingers; and most of them brought out the result seventeen. But some of them unfortunately counted a finger too many or too few, and answered sixteen or eighteen. And in geography, they first pointed out to her the places upon their little maps (no very difficult task, with the names directly before their sharp eyes,) before they were required to tell, with books closed, where the places were. It was Miss Mason's ambition that her scholars should recite well, and to obtain this end, she made the recitation as easy as possible. The result was, as might have been predicted, that they studied very little at their seats; and not studying, they were very restless and disorderly. She bade them *again and again to be* studying their lessons, to keep their *eyes on their books, to* quit whispering and playing, to sit still,

&c., but all to no purpose. Why should they be studying, when they could get along in the recitation just as well without it? Miss Mason was very faithful, very laborious, and accomplished about half as much as she might have done with half the labor upon a better system.

Miss Clark allowed her classes no such indulgences. She regarded it as her great business to make her scholars study; and it seemed to be quite a minor consideration with her what they studied. The harder lessons could be made, the better; for then they must study more upon them. She looked with suspicion upon anything which would render a study more interesting or easy of apprehension, because it would then require less of hard work. And, on this principle, she gave as little explanation as possible in recitation. Her first class had just taken their places to recite in Colburn's First Lessons, when I entered her school. "What is the first question, Jane?" she asked. Jane repeated the question without book, and then gave a solution of it,—correct, but done so mechanically that I really doubted whether she fully comprehended what she was doing. "The next question, Lucy?" And Lucy, in like manner, stated and solved the next question. "What," said I, "have they committed these questions all to memory in their order?" "Certainly," replied Miss Clark, "that makes them study." "But of what use can it be?" I asked. "Oh," said she, "it keeps them busy, and fixes their attention on the matter, and is an excellent discipline for the mind." Yes, I thought to myself, but it is not fixing their attention on the *essential* matter in arithmetic, and is giving a discipline entirely different from that which properly belongs to the study, nay, even interfering with it. "You will find no royal roads to learning here," proceeded Miss Clark; "for those, you must visit my friend, Miss Mason. In teaching arithmetic, I first set my girls to committing all the tables to memory; and when they can say them perfectly, then put them into Colburn, and make them commit all the questions, as well as learn the answers, as they go along, That makes them study, I assure you." "But in learning it thus by memory, do they comprehend it as they proceed?" "No matter for that," she replied, "there is no danger, in these days of precocious wisdom, but that they will understand it fast enough. Memory first, and comprehension afterwards, is my motto." "What, even in mathematics?" I asked. "Yes, everywhere," she replied; "when scholars understand a thing perfectly, there is danger that they will trust to this in recitation, and not feel the necessity of committing to memory the *precise words* of the book." I thought, but did not say to her, *that in mathematics* certainly, and indeed in most of our studies, *every step taken without comprehension is only a step back.*

wards. She was consistent throughout. In reading, her scholars stopped just long enough at a comma to count one, at a semicolon to count two, at a colon three, and at a period four; indeed, I observed from the lips or fingers of some of them, that they actually counted off the pauses,—while they often seemed as unconscious of the meaning or spirit of what they were reading, as so many speaking automata. And in their other studies, when memory happened to fail them, the grossness of the blunders which they made was sometimes wonderfully ludicrous. For example, they seemed very familiar with the addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division tables, but they not unfrequently applied the wrong table. "If we can buy three yards of calico for six shillings, how much will one cost?" "Eighteen," replied a bright-looking girl, who was perfect in the multiplication table, but had not been taught to think;" "because three times six are eighteen." Miss Clark's school was very studious, and in perfect order; but I felt, when I crossed the threshold into the open air, that I had come out from a prison-house, where intellect was bound and made to grind. I afterwards learned that her scholars had much of the same feeling mingled, as was not unnatural, with a strong hatred to study.

I next visited Miss Jones's school. Her method in recitation was one of approximation. An appropriate name for her would be "Miss Try-again." I will give an example of her method. "Charles, spell Charlotte." "*S-h-a-r- Shar, l-o-t lot, Sharlot,*" was the boy's phonetic operation. "O that won't do, Charles, you must try again; think of your own name, Charles." Charles tried again, profiting by the hint which had been given him, and this time made some approximation towards the right, by spelling *C-h-a-r-l-o-t.* "That is better," said his teacher; "the first syllable is now right; but can't you spell the last syllable differently?" A third attempt only changed this to *l-u-t;* and Miss Jones was obliged to put the word to the next. *C-h-a-r-l-o-t-t* was Henry's method. "That is more like it, but you want one letter more." This suggestion brought out, upon the fifth trial, the right spelling of the word; and Charles evidently felt that he had done by no means badly, and Henry, that he had done very well. "Right, Henry," said the teacher, who then put out *conceive* to James. James achieved a triumph over this word by only three trials, giving first *ie*, then *ea*, and lastly *ei* in the last syllable. I will give another example, which occurred in a recitation in geography. Sarah was directed to bound her native State. "Massachusetts," she began, "is bounded on the north by Vermont." "Right, and what else?" "*Maine.*" *A gentle shake* of the teacher's head led the child *to change this to New Hampshire.* "Right, and on the south

by—?" "The Atlantic Ocean," said Sarah. "Right so far." But Sarah could go no farther; and one girl added Connecticut, and another Rhode Island. This indulgent *try-again* system, of course, saved the scholars from feeling the necessity of anything like accurate study; and the process was so slow, that very little was accomplished in recitation.

The next teacher, whose school I visited, I should be inclined to call "Miss Individuality." She labored hard through the school-hours, and even beyond them; but accomplished very much less than she might have done, from her habit of instructing her scholars so much individually. Fifteen of her youngest scholars came up to her successively, and read or spelled to her one by one. This operation occupied three quarters of an hour, and yet each one received on an average only three minutes' instruction. If the same time had been devoted to them in two or three classes, with the aid of cards which they could all see at once, or of writing on the blackboard, their progress might have been three times as rapid, with more occupation and pleasure to themselves, and with less tedium to the teacher. A teacher can accomplish very little, except as he brings his scholars collectively under his influence, by a judicious classification.

In the next school, that of Miss Baker, I observed an opposite fault, an excessive and injudicious use of simultaneous exercises for the whole school, and of simultaneous recitation in the separate classes. These exercises, introduced into the earlier part of the school sessions, produced a social excitement, which rendered the subsequent periods of more quiet study and recitation dull and tasteless. And the scholars had evidently acquired the habit of following one another in their answers, whether right or wrong, just like a flock of sheep. If the leader struck the right note, all went well enough; and one might suppose that the rest answered from knowledge, instead of mere imitation. But if the first speaker happened to make a mistake, then the scene was often amusing. "How much is nine times six?" Miss Baker asked one of her classes. "Seventy-two," the first replied; and immediately "Seventy-two," "Seventy-two," "Seventy-two," rang through the class. But the teacher looked dissatisfied; and one bethought himself and answered "Fifty-four," and others echoed and re-echoed "Fifty-four," "Fifty-four." At first it seemed doubtful, which of the two streams of sound would conquer; "As when two mountain torrents meet in the vale," Homer would say. But "Truth," so says the old proverb, "is mighty and will prevail;" and after a short contest, "Fifty-four" gained a complete victory, and those shouted it *loudest, who* had at first been most zealous for "Seventy-two."

Miss Torry, whom I next visited, had a large school, and made much use of the assistance of the older scholars in the

instruction of the younger. This assistance seemed important; and yet it somewhat disturbed her own recitations, and from want of systematic superintendence was far less valuable than it might have been. Some of it was useless, and some even worse than useless. As I opened the outer door of the school-house, I found three boys engaged in very quiet play. "Why are you here?" I asked them. "The mistress sent me out," replied the oldest, "to hear John and William read." "And have you heard them?" "Oh certainly," said he, "and I am going to hear them again." Perhaps ten minutes, out of the half-hour which they spent there, were given to their work. But these ten minutes Miss Torry was unable to give, and they were doubtless spent usefully to all the three.

I have not yet spoken of the school of my predecessor, Miss Adams, who was so soon to resign her place to me. She was, upon the whole, quite a good teacher; but she did not make sufficient allowance for the restless and improvident nature of children, and for their inability to give any long-protracted attention to study. Hence, to save time, as she said, and to prevent, so far as might be, the bustle of changing classes, she was in the habit of hearing all the exercises of each class continuously. Her method was the following. She first called out her abecedarians, and gave them all the instruction which she designed to give them during the half-day. Then she heard her fifth class read, and afterwards spell; and then her fourth class read and spell. She then heard her third class read and spell, and added an oral exercise in counting and reckoning. Next, her second class read, spelled, and recited in arithmetic or geography; and last of all, her first, or highest, class did the same, occupying three-quarters of an hour continuously in their recitation. It was obvious, that this method, however it might suit adult scholars, was very ill adapted to a primary school. Each class had an interval of more than two hours between their recitations. This was a much longer time than their infant natures could give, without injury, to continuous study. They must have relaxation and change; and none being provided for them in the exercises of the school-room, they either sought it for themselves, or suffered from the want of it. Some, under painful constraint, sat like martyrs with their hands behind them. Others made marks or rude figures on slates; uselessly enough for the most part, while a little attention might have taught them both to write and to draw. Some boys, indeed, without instruction, would make very good pictures of horses and ships, while girls were more successful with birds, flowers, and trees. Others improved every possible opportunity of jumping up and down, leaving their seats, *throwing paper balls*, snapping apple-seeds, chewing gum, *crunching nuts, chatting* with their neighbors, playing pins, com-

paring rings, pushing, pulling, and all the various etceteras by which the active, impulsive, restless nature of childhood seeks relief, when we allow it no proper outlet. And what study was done during this period was less profitable, because it was divided between different recitations. The child would perhaps first study his reading a little, then his spelling awhile, then his arithmetic, and then go back to reading and spelling, without concentrating his attention on any one lesson long enough to master it. The recitations, therefore, were not as well prepared as though each had had its special hour or half-hour of preparation. The long recitation, also, of the higher classes was tedious. Whether they were sitting or standing, they became weary from its length; and were less attentive, than they would have been to shorter recitations having a special object. The younger classes, however, were most unmanageable and most to be pitied, from the fact that they had finished their work during the first part of the session, and during the rest of it had nothing to do but to be annoying and uncomfortable; for, of course, it could not be expected to any great extent, that during the forenoon they would be preparing lessons for the afternoon, and during the afternoon for the next forenoon. Poor teacher! and with still more reason we may exclaim, Poor scholars! And all this merely to avoid a little marching to and fro of classes, which in itself, so far from being an evil, would have been a benefit to all concerned. There was another serious evil in Miss Adams's method. The first, second, or third class in reading and spelling was also the first, second, or third class in arithmetic and geography. But the proficiency and capacities of scholars in these different studies were sometimes very different. For example, some of the older scholars in the third class, who had been little to school and were therefore backward in reading and spelling, but who had been used to reckoning marbles and doing errands at stores, had more capacity for arithmetical computation, than most of the members of the first class. The improvement of scholars is evidently greatest when in every study they can be classed according to their ability for pursuing that study.

But the fortnight was at length out; and I was obliged to bring my travels to a close, somewhat, I fancy, to the relief of my neighbor-teachers, though they always received me very kindly, and I am happy in being able to say that I have never abused their kindness by censorious remarks upon their schools. I feel greatly indebted to the fortnight spent among them for any success which I may have had in my own labors. My *year of teaching* has certainly been a very pleasant one; and *if any teachers* younger than myself have any curiosity to know what methods I pursue, I do not see that modesty forbids

my stating them in an anonymous communication like the present.

In the morning, we commence by singing a stanza or two of some familiar hymn; I then read myself a few verses from the Bible, sometimes adding a remark or two; and offer a short prayer, closing with the Lord's Prayer, which my scholars repeat with me. The reading of the Scriptures by the scholars themselves, a verse or two by each, as practised in some schools, seems to me to be of very little value as an exercise in reading, and, as primary scholars are apt to read, of still less value as a devotional exercise. I then call out my abecedarians, teaching them as a class from cards and the blackboard, and showing them how to print the capital letters in their simplest forms on the blackboard and on their slates. They begin to read and spell words and sentences, as soon as they have learned letters enough to compose them. I take especial pains, from the outset, in teaching them the powers of the letters, and not their mere names (which, indeed, seem always to come whenever they are wanted, without any effort); and thus I seem to myself to secure all the advantages of the phonetic mode of teaching, without the incumbrance and confusion of a double orthography.

I then call out my several classes in spelling and reading, beginning with the lowest, as requiring the least preliminary study. I say "spelling and reading," because I uniformly commence with the spelling; and the lesson in spelling always includes *all* the words in the reading lesson, which is given out of a suitable length for this. After this, I require the scholars to give me some account of the reading lesson, with their books still closed. The books are then opened, and any words or expressions which seem to me to require explanation are explained. Then, and not till then, the lesson is read. After reading it two or three times through with great care, we turn back and read over previous lessons, until the time for the recitation has expired; for I endeavor to be precise in giving each class its proportion of time. The spelling and questioning before the reading compel the scholars to study the lesson much more carefully than if these followed the reading, and they also prepare the way for a much more fluent and intelligent reading. The spelling and reading occupy the whole time until the recess, which comes in the middle of the session.

After the recess, the arithmetic classes are called up, beginning with the lowest. These classes include all the scholars, *without exception*, (for the exercise is alike appropriate and important for all,) arranged according to their progress in *counting and reckoning*. *First*, I have one or two classes in mere *counting, or the simplest* reckoning, by the aid of fingers, marbles, beans, marks on the blackboard or on slates, &c.; then I

have a class in Emerson's First Part, and then one or two classes in Colburn's First Lessons, who also learn to perform simple operations on slates. I endeavor to proceed very gradually, and no faster than the mind of the pupil can expand to comprehend the whole process, and to discover for itself the result.

After these lessons are finished, I devote fifteen minutes to an exercise in which each one of the more advanced half of the school is engaged in teaching one pupil of the less advanced half. The instruction (given of course, in a low tone,) may be in reading, in counting, in printing or writing on a slate, &c., according to the wants of the pupil. I superintend the whole exercise very carefully, and have found it to be of great advantage both to the older and to the younger scholars. The last ten or fifteen minutes of the forenoon we give to a simultaneous exercise, which, coming at the close, is quite a relief, and does not unfit for any following exercise. In this, we sometimes analyze the sounds of the language, and sometimes repeat tables or other familiar matters, but uniformly close with singing. In this way, each scholar comes twice before me in the half day; and the last half hour of the session is spent in exercises which please by their variety and social character, and keep the whole school busy and interested. I should add, that every lesson in each study includes, as a matter of course, a review of the preceding lesson.

The afternoon commences with reading, and then proceeds in the same manner as the forenoon, except that, in the place of arithmetic, the higher classes have geography, and the lower classes have, for the most part, some oral exercise preparatory to the study of geography, such as instruction from the map of the town, county, or state, or about natural objects, as birds, beasts, fishes, insects, trees, flowers, stones, shells, hills, rivers, lakes, the heavenly bodies, &c., with such illustrations as I can find either in pictures or in the natural objects themselves. Some easy and useful lesson to be committed to memory, however, sometimes takes the place of this exercise; and thus my scholars learn the names of the months, the colors of the rainbow, the most common abbreviations, tables of time, weight and measure, and sometimes a few stanzas of beautiful poetry. In the afternoon, the higher classes often read and spell from their geography, instead of the reading book which they use in the forenoon. This assists them in understanding it, and greatly promotes their progress in the study.

We have thus three kinds of classes, which may be termed in general, reading and spelling classes, arithmetic classes, and *geography classes*. Every class which recites from a text-book *has a head*, and the scholar who is at the head Wednesday and Saturday noons, receives a credit for it and sometimes a certifi-

cate, and then goes to the foot to work his way up again. Every scholar who is absent, whether with or without excuse, always takes the foot on rejoining the class. To prevent disputes about places, I keep a list of each class, on which I mark the places of the scholars at the close of each recitation, and at the next recitation I call them out in order from the list. A certain number of credits entitles the scholar to a book or some other reward; and as some are better in spelling, others in arithmetic, and others still in geography, and as credits are given twice a week, while good behavior is also taken into account, these rewards are distributed much more equally than in most schools.

If other Primary Teachers have discovered better methods than these, will they not have the kindness to impart them? Our cause is one; and that a cause of intense interest and surpassing nobleness. X. Y. Z.

EDUCATION—ITS NATURE AND OBJECTS.

WHAT is education? We hope our readers will not think we mean to pay a questionable compliment to their good sense or general intelligence by proposing this question, and briefly trying to answer it. Every body at this day, and with us, discusses the subject of education. In shops, in public houses, in the reading-room and in the market-place, the talk is apt to be of schools, of teachers and of methods of education. There never was probably a country or a province in the world, where so wide and so deep an interest has been felt in this great subject; nor where so much money, according to the population, has been annually paid for the general diffusion of knowledge among the people, as is true of Massachusetts to-day. And yet, we strongly suspect, that if many of those who talk loudly on the subject, and feel really the importance and value of the interest in question, were asked to give their ideal of education, their answers would be various and widely contradictory. Some would be vague, and some entirely wrong. Now, whatever the importance of correct views here may be to society in general,—and it is doubtless very great,—the teacher cannot afford to be without definite and right notions on this subject; first, because such notions are entirely essential to the right and skilful performance of his duties; and secondly, because he, more than any other, has it in his power to diffuse correct knowledge in this respect. *The tendency is* constantly to wrong or inadequate or *essentially erroneous views*, both among pupils themselves and

among those who support our educational institutions. Teachers, therefore, as a class, especially need to understand their calling, and the best means of answering its designs. We shall therefore offer no farther apology for endeavoring to express some of our own views in this matter, which, if not adopted by others, we trust will at least lead to farther inquiry and awaken more interest on this most vital question.

It is obvious that right notions of education imply generally correct opinions in regard to its subject—*the human mind.* To cultivate successfully any kind of vegetable, grain or tree, it is essential to know its nature and the laws of its growth. These we must take as we find them. All we can do is to adapt our culture to these laws, which we cannot change nor essentially modify. It is very much the same with the mind. Our culture here must agree with its nature, else we shall make a failure, or perhaps do more than this. The word education, whose Latin etymology has been given by every tyro, in his first composition, and whose meaning, a *drawing* or *leading forth*, every one knows, is significant as well of the character of the mind as of the process which it describes. It shows that the mind has the capability of development, and implies that the human powers are to be unfolded and strengthened. It indicates the fact that a human soul is a living power, capable of progressive growth; and not an empty lumber-room, fit only for the indiscriminate storage of bales and boxes and other most heterogeneous things. The man is in the infant, even as is the oak tree in the acorn. In both cases, the one contains the possibility of the other. And in both alike the *possible* becomes *actual* under the favorable circumstances of growth and cultivation; and in no other way. It is true that each healthy seed is the germ of a full grown tree; but who does not know that the tree which springs therefrom will be strong and healthy, or of a stunted and sickly growth, just as it happens to be placed in a genial, or in a barren and rocky soil? The living power of the germ must be *educed*, and this in accordance with the appointed laws and conditions which regulate its growth. Let the infant, from the first dawning of his life, be subject to wholesome and healthful influences, such as are adapted to refine and ennoble, to cherish and develop his latent powers; and he becomes at length a full grown and *actual* man. We speak of the general law, fully aware that there are seeming exceptions. There will be, in the best soil, singular instances of inferior growth. But in such cases we may be sure that some needful condition is unfulfilled, with which the individual would in each instance have been more nearly complete.

On the other hand, if the child is exposed to untoward influences which wither and dry up every thing manly and ennobling

within him, his manly stature must be in the end proportionably dwarfed. As to the great purposes of human existence in this world, he will be as useless and as barren as the stinted mountain shrub. He may get enough to eat and drink; he may wear sumptuous clothing; his dwelling may be large and costly; his equipage may glitter, and dazzle the eyes of the staring multitude; he may even riot in wealth and wallow in luxury,—but *educated* he is not; to this high honor he may not aspire.

Nor is it mere intellectual development with which education is concerned. In the wonderful mechanism of humanity there is a moral nature standing preëminent among all our powers. First of all and before all, this claims culture and care. We must therefore deem every method or system of education which leaves out of view this part of man's nature, as essentially disproportionate and imperfect. If man has an intellect, so he has a conscience: if he has a head, so he has a heart. Must he, in order to fulfil his destiny, be wise? He must no less be good and virtuous. Is it well for him to be able to judge, to calculate, to contrive? It is still better for him to be charitable, kind, honest, humane.

To develop, then, and to bring into vigorous life and full growth these two constituents of our being, the intellectual and the moral,—this is education in the true and best acceptation of that term. We might with propriety speak of physical education; and this is by no means unimportant. We omit this, however, in the present discussion.

From the definition thus given, it is easy to see that what often goes under the name of education is quite another thing. It is not the acquisition of words or things merely; it is not the learning of geography or history; it is not the knowledge of arithmetic or of algebra, that constitute education. These are only its means; and not even that, when they fail to produce the proper result, as they often do.

To possess knowledge on a variety of subjects is useful and convenient. Indeed, such knowledge is the foundation of all true education; but what we wish to make distinctly definite is the fact that knowledge and education are two entirely different things; as completely distinguishable from each other as are the rain and the earth and the sunshine, from the plant they have conspired to produce. From confusing these two different things some very absurd notions have sprung. We hear of those who have *finished* their education by having pursued a prescribed course of study; or of having completed it by having been in a given school a given number of years. Though this form of expression is in some cases only figurative, yet the words contain a lurking satire upon opinions, to say the least, quite prevalent; for they imply the finishing of what often has never

been truly begun. From this same confusion of different things, this ignorance of the true nature of education, also, come those frequent and ofttimes irksome questions from parents and pupils, such as, What good will come of studying Algebra? What is the use of Latin? How will Geometry be any benefit to my son? That Mathematics or Latin or Greek should be pursued by those who will in after life lay them partially or wholly aside, is regarded only as an entire waste of time and strength. It is not even dreamed that the thorough pursuit of these studies, produces *effects*, and induces habits of the utmost value, which will never be lost, though all which is learned in the school should be wholly forgotten. A stake is driven firmly down, and the crooked shrub, fastened to it, is made to take an upright shape. Year after year confirms the position, and finally the tree stands erect, tall and strong, while the old support is decaying at its roots. Thus it is with many of the studies pursued at school. They help to give shape and direction and strength to the mind; and when they have done this, there may be no farther need for them. There are, it is true, certain branches which will in other ways be useful, and which it will be most necessary to remember. But there are some specific results in mental growth, which cannot be secured but by careful study of what, in nine cases out of ten, will never be used in ordinary life.

Besides, it is not the *amount* acquired which determines the result. It is not the quantity of food which is taken, but rather the *manner* in which what is taken is digested, that causes the healthy growth of the child. There is an intellectual as well as a physical dyspepsia. The mind that is crammed each day with innutritious and inconvenient food, must of course be sickly and weak. It is not the number of books read, of subjects studied, nor yet the multitude of facts acquired and remembered, that produce intellectual superiority; but rather the use which is made of all this. In history, for example, the mere knowledge of facts can be of no great advantage; unless from these facts we are able to generalize and deduce principles. The existence of Napoleon or Cæsar, their lives, their genius, and their exploits, are matters of fact which history gives us. But what better are we for the mere knowledge of these facts, than those who never heard those names, unless we can derive from them great moral and political lessons? And the same may be asked respecting all other knowledge of the kind. It is often considered enough if the pupil recites the words of the lesson correctly; at least, so the pupil himself naturally regards it unless he *is put right* again and again. A class in Intellectual Philosophy *was once called* up to recite. The first question put was, "What *is abstraction?*" A pupil unhesitatingly answered, "It is

the separation of facts from the relations in which they were originally presented to us, and the contemplation of some of them apart from the rest; considering, for example, certain properties of bodies apart from their other properties. Among a variety of objects we thus fix upon qualities which are common to a certain number of them, and so arrange them into genera and species." This was recited fluently, and with every appearance of understanding the meaning on the part of the pupil. It was entirely correct according to the book, and with little attention from a mind of any considerable maturity is easily understood. But in the case now mentioned, a subsequent test question from the teacher showed that the pupil had not the remotest idea of the meaning of the words which had been recited. Not seldom have we seen scholars who had, as they said, been through the Arithmetic, and yet were ignorant of the principles of numeration, and could not tell why, in adding, we carry for ten rather than fifteen or any other number. We heard once a rather ludicrous story, which will very well illustrate what is too often true. A boy who had finished his arithmetic and was complacently making known his exploits, was asked to find the cost of 12 pounds of pork at 7⅔ cents per pound, provided five pounds of the meat were fat. After working and puzzling himself for a long time, he gave it up, saying there was no such question in the book, but that he still thought he could do it, if it were not for the five pounds of fat. He made shipwreck on the fat meat.

Thus it is easy to have knowledge of words without meaning; and of meaning, without any beneficial effect upon the intellect. And here lies one of the greatest responsibilities of the teacher, as well as one of the greatest difficulties of his task. Amid the pressing duties of a large school, he is in danger of being satisfied himself, and of leaving his pupil satisfied with mere verbal recitations; it being the truth, that comparatively few naturally possess that inquisitive habit of mind which instinctively seeks the reason and meaning of what it meets. But while this habit is natural to but few, it may be formed and cultivated in most by judicious management and correct training on the part of the teacher. And this, we repeat, is the most difficult as well as the most important part of his task. It is to teach his pupil *to think*, and *to think for himself*. He truly educates only when he does this; and whoso accomplishes this, by whatever means and in whatever way, may rightfully claim to be an educator. And the difficulty here will be likely to be appreciated only by one who has experienced it. It is only when he has tried again and again to put himself in the place of the pupil, and made his illustrations *just such as* seemed fitted to his pupil's capacity, *and after all find that he has* missed the mark, that the teacher

will understand something of the nature of teaching. And he only can be truly successful in it who can find the stand-points of his pupils, and thus with effect and skill adapt his teachings to their understanding and capacity. One grand purpose of knowledge being thus to induce reflection, mental activity, intellectual growth, and so education, in its proper meaning, it is manifest that much time may be spent and labor expended to very little purpose, both by teacher and pupil, and yet considerable success may seem to have been the result.

It will be readily inferred that we entertain no such utilitarian notions of education in its character or ends as would make it wholly subservient to a man's worldly success. By some, we fear it might be said by *many*, education is supposed to be valuable only as a means of enabling one to be shrewd in business operations, and thus successful in gaining a livelihood; and that to educate a youth is only to fit him for business, even as a race-horse is fitted for the course. The remark is sometimes made by the father of his son, "He knows enough already. I have got along tolerably well in the world, and he knows more than I did at his age;" and so the boy is taken from school, just as the intellect had commenced its growth, confined for life to the farm or the shop, and doomed henceforth to know nothing of that high and rational pleasure which intellectual tastes shed upon the condition of man.

If education is acquired merely to enable its possessor to "make money," then we may say that the time and means spent in that way are poorly spent; for every one knows that the ignorant man,—ignorant at least of books,—is quite as likely to become rich—that is, to lay up money,—as is the educated man. It is true that education, by elevating the character and raising the man to a refined and intelligent atmosphere, is its own reward; and if it does not conduct to affluence, it usually repels the fear of want. But the true teacher and the intelligent learner will look at education with a different view. To them it will seem worthy to be obtained for its own sake alone, because it is worth intrinsically far more than all the cost of obtaining it. Nor will the thought of duty be kept from its proper connection here. It will be felt that education is demanded on moral grounds of every human being. For what other purpose indeed has God given us the wonderful and noble powers we possess? Are they to lie hidden in the rubbish and dust of this world, like the rough mountain gem, far away from the light that reveals its beauty? No! The Creator has endowed us with a mind and a heart; and not one of us can go *through life* and leave that heart and mind without culture and *be guiltless*. It is not of course the duty of the farmer to leave *the plough*, nor the mechanic his shop, nor the merchant his

counting-room, for the exclusive pursuits of study; but it is the duty of every one, which can in no way be evaded, to make the most of himself in whatever sphere he is called to labor, and thus to realize in himself, so far as he may, the true ideal of *man*.

SELF-REPORTING SYSTEM IN SCHOOLS.

THIS subject was announced for discussion on the business circulars of the last meeting of the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association. But the pressure of other business was so great as to prevent the discussion, which we regretted, since the subject is one of no little importance; but in respect to which there have been very various opinions.

We take it for granted that in most schools of any size, where the pupils study in the school-room, one of two methods must be adopted. Either the pupils must keep their own account of delinquencies, or others, teachers or monitors, must keep such an account. The question then seems to come to this,—Which is the better method of the two? It has always seemed to us, that pupils should in all cases be encouraged, and in some cases required to report their failures in duty to their teachers. They should be encouraged always so to do, because the practice will be highly beneficial to them in a moral point of view. No one who has become delinquent in duty, of whatever kind, will be likely to amend until the wrong is recalled and distinctly reflected upon. And a pupil who has been consciously unfaithful, will be much less likely to repeat the offence after freely and frankly acknowledging it to his teacher. This very acknowledgment would be a sort of tacit promise of amendment. And the practice helps to form that habit of retrospection so entirely necessary to moral culture. Besides, it affords the teacher the best of all opportunities to give counsel and aid and warning, which is one of his chief duties. For he should be in some sense the spiritual as well as intellectual guide of his pupils.

To some extent also,—what, the circumstances and character of each school must determine,—the practice of keeping a correct account of misdemeanors should, in our judgment, be required of the pupils. Because, in the first place, some pupils will seldom if ever do it otherwise, and thus will miss one most essential method of improvement; and secondly, because it may be made, when judiciously managed, an important aid in securing good order, *without which any* school will possess little comparative *value. The only serious* objection that we remember to have

heard to this practice, is that when it lies with the pupil to report his failures, the temptation to deceive will be great, and there is thus danger that he will form a habit of deception. Let us examine this objection a moment, and compare its relative force in regard to both methods of keeping accounts. Let it, meanwhile, be understood that there are pupils in every school who will, under any system, be likely to use more or less concealment. Let it also be understood that we speak of self-reporting as it should be managed, and not as it may be abused. Seldom, if ever, would we make delinquencies reported by pupils themselves the basis for inflicting penalties, other than the conscience of the offender might supply. Nor in general would we have any but the teachers know what each one records against himself. And we would have every pupil feel that the chief design of the plan is to promote *self*-inspection, to secure *self*-government, and so to help him on in the most important kind of improvement. Managed thus, which of the two methods will be most likely to engender habits of deception, as well as other undesirable traits? In the one case, the pupil watches over himself and is put upon his honor. In the other, he is watched by another, and no such responsibility rests upon him. Under one system, he is made to feel that the governing of himself is put into his own hands, and thus he is encouraged to practise self-control. Under the other, he feels little of this, and comes to regard himself under the care of somebody else. The self-reporting system, rightly conducted, makes the pupil feel that the account stands properly between himself and his conscience; that the teacher is only an occasional spectator here; that however much he may deceive the one, the other cannot be cheated, and that deception, therefore, is of no avail. The monitorial plan, on the other hand, tends to induce the feeling, that the pupil has no responsibilities beyond the teacher; and he learns very soon, that all the misdemeanors he commits without the knowledge of those who keep the accounts, pass for nothing; and to feel perhaps at length, that the wrong itself is not so much in the act, as in its detection. Here then it seems to us is a temptation to wrong practice and wrong opinion, of a strength which finds no parallel in the other method. Besides, it puts the teacher and pupil in an entirely false position with respect to each other. Under this system it is impossible that there should not be an antagonistic relation, more or less marked, between them. In many cases it will result in a sharp game of dissimulation on the one side, and attempts at detection on the other. Now it seems to us that every thing which would induce this state of things *in a school is* most destructive, and should be carefully shunned. *The pupil* and the teacher are seeking the same end. There *ought not to* be any antagonism between them. And there

would be often much less of it than there is, if all unnecessary causes thereto were avoided.

In short, the highest kind of government in a school is self-government; and he is the best disciplinarian who secures the most of this kind of rule among his pupils. Indeed self-government is a most essential part of education, and should so be regarded by the teacher. And in securing it he will not only benefit his pupils, but greatly aid himself. That this is to a very great extent practicable, we could readily show by reference to some of the best schools in the State. We know of schools, self-governed almost, where the highest order prevails, with, at the same time, a perfectly good understanding between the teachers and pupils, both heartily coöperating for the common good.

WIRT'S LETTER TO HIS DAUGHTER AT SCHOOL.

[The following beautiful and truthful letter of the late Hon. William Wirt, to his young daughter, is full of hints for the teacher as well as instruction to the pupil. We question whether its distinguished author, jurist, scholar, Christian as he was, ever wrote anything more truly appropriate to its design than this letter.]

"My Dear Laura:—I would have answered your letter sooner, but that my courts and clients hardly leave me time to write to your dear mother, to whom, of all earthly creatures, you and I owe our first duties. But I have not loved you the less for not writing to you; on the contrary I have been thinking of you with the greatest affection, and praying for you on my bended knees, night and morning, humbly begging of God that he would bless you with health and happiness, and make you an ornament to your sex, and a blessing to your parents. But we must not be like the man that prayed to Hercules to help his wagon out of the mud, and was too lazy to try to help himself; no, we must be thoughtful, try our *very best* to learn our books, and to be good; and then if we call upon our Father in heaven, he will help us.

"I am very glad your Latin grammar is becoming easier to you. It will be more and more so, the more you give your whole mind to it. God has been very kind in blessing you with a sound understanding, and it would be very sinful in you to neglect so great a blessing, and suffer your mind to go to ruin, instead of improving it by study and making it beautiful, as well as useful to yourself and others. It would be almost as bad as it would be for Uncle Cabell to be so lazy himself, and suffer his laborers to be so lazy, as to let his rich low grounds run up all in weeds, *instead of corn*, and so have no bread for his family, *and let them all starve* and die. Now your mind is as rich as

Uncle Cabell's low grounds; and all that your father and mother ask of you, is, that you will not be so idle as to let it run to weeds; but that you will be industrious and studious, and so your mind will bring a fine crop of fruits and flowers.

"Suppose there was a nest full of beautiful young birds, so young that they could not fly and help themselves, and they were opening their little mouths, and crying for something to eat and drink, and their parents would not bring them anything, but were to let them cry on, from morning till night, till they starved and died; would they not be very wicked parents? Now, your mind is this nest full of beautiful little singing birds; much more beautiful and melodious than any canary birds in the world; and there sit Fancy, and Reason, and Memory, and Judgment, all with their little heads thrust forward out of the nest, and crying as hard as they can for something to eat and drink. Will you not love your father for trying to feed them with books and learning, the only kind of meat and drink they love, and without which those sweet little songsters must, in a few years, hang their heads and die? Nay, will you not do your very best to help your father and mother to feed them, that they may grow up and get a full suit of fine glossy feathers and cheer the house with their songs? And, moreover, would it not be very wrong to feed *some* of them only, and let the rest starve?

"You are very fond when you get a new story-book, of running through it as fast as you can, just for the sake of knowing what happened to *this* one, and *that* one; in doing so, you are only feeding *one* of the four birds I have mentioned,—that is *Fancy*, which to be sure is the loudest singer among them, and will please you most while you are young. But while you are thus feeding and stuffing Fancy, Reason, Memory and Judgment are starving; and yet, by-and-by you will think their notes much sweeter and softer than those of Fancy, although not so loud, and wild, and varied. Therefore you ought to feed those other birds, too; they eat a great deal slower than Fancy; they require the grains to be pounded in a mortar, before they can get any food from them; that is, when you read a pretty story, you must not gallop over it as fast as you can, just to learn what happened; but you must stop every now and then, and consider why one person you are reading of, is so much loved, and another so much hated.

"This sort of consideration pounds the grains in a mortar, and feeds Reason and Judgment. Then you must determine that you will not forget that story; but that you will try to remember every part of it, so that you may shape your own conduct *by it; doing* those good actions which the story has told you *will make* people love you, and avoiding those evil ones which *you find will* make them hate you. This is feeding Memory and

Judgment both at once. Memory, too, is remarkably fond of a *tit-bit* of Latin grammar, and though the food is hard to come at, yet the sweet little bird must not starve. The rest of them could do nothing without her; for if she was to die, they would never sing again, at least not sweetly.

"Your affectionate father,

"WILLIAM WIRT."

LIVE AND DEAD TEACHERS.

FOR once, we wish we could wield the pen of "the ready writer," in order that we might say just what we *wish* to say—what *can* be said—and what *ought* be said on this subject. Never have we been made so fully sensible of the real and world-wide difference between these two classes, as since, by our position, we have been brought into correspondence with the great body of teachers throughout the State. It is true that with the latter of these, we have had little to do, since most of them are so dead as to be wholly insensible of what is going on around them, and of course are yet ignorant of our enterprise; but occasionally, one of their *ghosts* so far resumes his mortality, as to send us a howl, or if that requires too much exertion, is content to show what he thinks of us and our undertaking, by giving only a stupid *yawn*, and then sinks away to his mortuary again, as though angry at being disturbed in his death-slumbers. The only thing that seems to trouble the dreams of such is, that others are alive and wide awake; and if they could only see all of their profession as lifeless as themselves, their repose would be so profound that no earthly resurrection could ever possibly reach them!

And yet they *must* be reached. Though totally unfit for them they occupy important positions, and must either be awakened to a sense of their responsibility, or driven from the places which they so unworthily hold. They need to be touched, at least, *lightly*, with the spear of Ithuriel, and if this article can be made to serve that purpose, we shall be satisfied. In order to do this effectually, we must advert to some of the more striking characteristics of each of these classes.

The dead teacher may be known by his total indifference to all that appertains to the prosperity of his profession. He cares not whether it rises or falls—whether its course is progressive or retrogressive. Some of the more energetic members of it about him may be sensible of their responsibility, and endeavor to improve themselves by every means in their power. They may hold meetings, organize institutes and associations, may combine together to increase their influence and promote the interests

of education—they may petition for improvements, may establish periodicals, send out lecturers, publish statistics, and in short, may employ every means within their reach for the advancement of their profession; but, Gallio like, *he* "cares for none of these things." He is content to plod on in the old way, and not only takes the world as he finds it (as he often boasts) but actually leaves it so. If there is anything to be done, especially for the good of others, he can always find "a lion in the way," and when any of these good enterprises fail, and fail because there are too many like him, then he can chuckle and laugh over it, with a self-complacent, "I told you so! I knew it would not last long." If called upon to subscribe for a periodical devoted to his profession, he is "*too poor*," and "can't find time to read it." "*He* has always got along well enough without attending these meetings and reading all these papers, and he don't see why others need to bother their heads about them. He can teach the three R's—*Readin*, *Ritin* and *Rethmetic*,—and that's enough for any schoolmaster to teach." Such men, if ever they were qualified for teaching, have failed to keep up with the times, and are no more fit to teach now, than Noah's ark would be for a modern "man-of-war."

But incompetent teachers are not the only dead ones. There are those who are qualified to teach, and who *do* teach well, who are too proud or too lazy to do anything for their profession, or even for the cause of education, except what they do in the school-room. Such are even more blameworthy than the class last mentioned, because, being men of more talent and influence, they know better than to hide their superior light under a bushel. They look with utter disdain upon the efforts of those whom they consider inferior to themselves, and cannot be found associating with them, even in a good cause. "What do these feeble district school teachers?" say they; "even that which they build, if a fox go up, he will break it down;" and so they look down with scorn from their lofty eminence upon all efforts at improvement, and leave the world to take care of itself, while with supreme selfishness they care only for their own immediate personal interests. O, it is well for mankind that all teachers are not like these, for then the world might go to destruction without any caring to hinder it.

Yes, thank Heaven, there *is* a class of teachers worthy of the name. They are *men*,—WHOLE men—men who seek to know their duty, and are fearless in the discharge of it,—men who are the salt of the earth—"who passing through the valley of Baca made it a well,"—men, in short, of whom the world is *not worthy*. Their hands are ready to assist in *every* good *work; their* hearts are full of zeal and enthusiasm in every *benevolent* cause and in every department of labor; their mite,

saved from a most scanty pittance, is cheerfully given whenever they are satisfied that *the great cause* can be promoted by it; and instead of finding a "lion in the way" of progress, though there were fifty, all would, like Samson's, come off second best, for nothing can discourage or intimidate them. They mean to turn the world upside down, for the simple reason that it has been *wrong side up* long enough. These leave their mark, and coming generations will rise up to call them blessed.

Such men are found in all professions, and an honor they are to them. In renovating a world lying in sin, we would give more for one HENRY WARD BEECHER, than for a whole acre of ecclesiastical drones such as are too often found in the ministry —men who are so fearful of doing *wrong* that they do *nothing*, and thereby do the greatest possible wrong. In fact, it is the same in all the professions; for in each, a few lead off, and those that have any life follow; while the dead members of course stay just where they were when life left them, (if they ever had it,) and where the general judgment will find them.

We do not make these remarks out of any anger—much less do we make them in any lightness. It is too serious a subject to be trifled with. As one of the conductors of this journal, we are fearfully awake to our responsibility; and it is because we felt a necessity laid upon us that we have dealt thus plainly. The almost daily complaint of our correspondents is,—"We have tried to get the teachers of this vicinity to feel an interest in their profession, and to subscribe for the *Teacher;* but they are too DEAD to do anything." But, thank God! it is not so with all. There are hundreds and thousands of real, whole-souled, *live* teachers in the State of New York, as the hundreds of letters in our desk will testify. All honor to such! It is soul-refreshing to hear from these, and when weary and borne down with care and anxiety in our enterprise, these letters are like cold water to a thirsty soul. We feel revived, encouraged, invigorated; and "except these abide in the ship" we cannot succeed. But it is a happy circumstance, that the number of such teachers is rapidly increasing, and we fondly anticipate the time when all that assume that important duty will be in all respects worthy of their office.—*N. Y. Teacher.*

THE MEASURE OF LIFE.

We live in deeds, not years; in thought, not breath;
In feelings, not in figures on the dial.
We should count time by heart-throbs, when they beat
For God, for man, for duty. He most lives
Who thinks most, feels noblest, acts the best.
Life is but a means unto an end—that end,
Beginning, mean and end to all things, God.

SPRING CONCERT.

BY MRS. SIGOURNEY.

THERE 's a concert, a concert of gladness and glee,
The programme is rich, and the tickets are free,
In a grand vaulted hall, where there 's room and to spare,
With no gas-lights to eat up the oxygen there.
The musicians excel in their wonderful art;
They have compass of voice, and the gamut by heart;
They travelled abroad in the winter recess,
And sang to vast crowds with unbounded success;
And now, 't is a favor and privilege rare,
Their arrival to hail, and their melody share.
These exquisite minstrels a fashion have set,
Which they hope you 'll comply with, and may not regret;
They do n't keep late hours, for they 've always been told
'T would injure their voices, and make them look old.
They invite you to come, if you have a fine ear,
To the garden or grove, their rehearsals to hear.
Their chorus is full, ere the sunbeam is born,
Their music the sweetest at breaking of morn —
It was learned at Heaven's gate, with its rapturous lays,
And may teach you, perchance, its own spirit of praise.

March, 1853.

THE TEACHER'S AUTHORITY.

THE end of intelligent, judicious authority in school, is to subserve the purposes of education; and submission to law is the first lesson the pupil should learn.

Human nature unrestrained, makes its abode a most unlovely spot, and of all others, the school-room, a scene of confusion and rebellion.

If a teacher wishes to place his school in a position to command the respect and confidence of the community,—if he would make his scholars energetic, prompt, accurate, he must put them into a state of entire submission to law, which should emanate from himself, and be the result of his own deliberate judgment, in view of existing circumstances. To such law, he must require unconditional, unlimited obedience. It is both his right and his duty. In no other way can he secure the respect and attention of his pupils, and if not the respect, of course, not of the love of *those* under his charge, without which the school-room becomes *loathsome*, and the teacher's work a task. It must then be his *first* and constant business to obtain and preserve order. No

obstacle should hinder him, no doubt stagger him, no danger cause him to swerve.

How can good order be obtained? Not, certainly, by the promulgation of a long list of rules, with penalties annexed to their violation, many of which will probably begin to die as soon as they are fairly ushered into being. Nor by obstreperous exclamations, proclaiming "I am master of this school; I will be obeyed!" so often repeated that even the pupils soon learn to regard them as assertions of a very doubtful character. Spasmodic action will never accomplish any thing desirable in the school-room; it only serves to show that there is disease in the system, which will eventually prove its overthrow.

Seldom, perhaps, is permanent order established by a single effort. Every act, word or look of the teacher has its influence in this matter, but there must be consistency and perseverance in a prescribed course to secure it. The habit of governing must as firmly be implanted in the teacher, as the habit of obedience in the pupil. If the one exists, the other will almost invariably follow.

Govern without appearing to govern, is a wise direction, Let there be no parade, no noise; be dignified, firm, prompt, and kind. Let your eye declare your intentions, while your words are few, distinct and decided. Never issue a command the consequences of which you have not attempted to foresee, and are not prepared to meet; but when delivered, secure its obedience, "peaceably if you can, forcibly if you must." There must be no evasion, no taking the back track, or the labor of months may be lost, and misrule and rebellion be the consequence.

The work of government requires powers more rare than the ability to convey information; this many can do, who deserve not the name of teachers. What can be accomplished in a school-room where order and system have no place, have not the first place? Who can expect, that out of such a laboratory, shall come forth any but effeminate, imbecile minds, undisciplined by submission, and unsubdued by restraint? They may acquire some superficial knowledge, which will dazzle for an hour, but fail utterly to secure a training which will give stamina to character, and fit its possessor to brave the storms of life, and to place his mark upon the men and things with which he mingles.

The teacher who requires implicit, respectful obedience of his pupils, must expect, in these days of loose principles, to meet a tide of influences wholly unpropitious to his plans, even among those friendly to his school. He may be urged to persuade, coax, *hire and flatter into* the ways of well-doing, but is warned *against adopting decisive* measures. To all this, he must have

self-control enough to listen, and independence enough to follow the convictions of his own cool judgment, and compel his pupils to do right if necessary.

Thus may he hope to obtain, not merely a dutiful respect to his wishes; the warm affection of young hearts, who may joyfully be led by him in the paths of wisdom, will cluster around him, while the impress of his own character shall be beautifully blended with that of a multitude who will soon be filling life's varied stations.

LOVE, HOPE, AND PATIENCE IN EDUCATION.

BY S. T. COLERIDGE.

O'ER wayward childhood wouldst thou hold firm rule,
And sun thee in the light of happy faces,
Love, Hope, and Patience, these must be thy graces,
And in thine own heart let them first keep school.
For as old Atlas on his broad back places
Heaven's starry globe, and there sustains it—so
Do these uphold the little world below
Of Education—Patience, Love and Hope.
Methinks I see them, grouped in seemly show,
The straitened arms upraised, the palms aslope,
And robes that touching as adown they flow
Distinctly blend, like snow embossed in snow.
O! part them never! if Hope prostrate lie,
Love, too, well sink and die.
But Love is subtile, and doth proof derive
From her own life, that Hope is yet alive,
And bending o'er with soul-transfusing eyes,
And the soft murmurs of the mother dove,
Wooes back the fleeting spirit and half supplies—
Thus Love repays to Hope what Hope first gave to Love.
Yet haply there will come a weary day,
When overtasked at length,
Both Love and Hope beneath the load give way;
Then with a statue's smile, a statue's strength,
Stands the mute sister, Patience, nothing loth,
And both supporting, does the work of both.

DOMESTIC FLOWER-CULTURE.

[The following extracts are from Chambers' Miscellany. We think they will not be without interest to the readers of "The Teacher;" for we suppose it one of the most natural things in the world for a cultivator of youth to be at the same time a cultivator of flowers.]

By domestic flower-culture we mean the endeavor to grow rare and ornamental varieties of flowering and other plants in every available situation connected with our dwellings. Be it window-recess, balcony, staircase, porch, or tiny front-plot, it matters not, provided there be less or more exposure to light and sunshine. Some such place is at the disposal of almost every one who enjoys the shelter of a roof, whether he is an inhabitant of the open country or the crowded city, the tenant of a single apartment, or the proprietor of a lordly mansion. The culture thus alluded to forms one of the most delightful recreations in which the enlightened mind can engage; it is innocent and cheerful; can be cheaply obtained; and, like other rational pastimes, may lead to pursuits of a more profitable nature.

The beauty and variety of flowers, the fragrance and freshness which we are insensibly led to associate with them, have long been themes for the poet and naturalist; but really not more so than the subject deserves.

The individual, who can rear in his window-recess, in his lobby, or around his porch, the shrubs and flowers of his own and other lands, has always a subject for contemplation before him; something to engage the attention, and to preserve the mind from the listlessness of ennui, or from positively pernicious pursuits. Any member of a family who has a little stand of plants to water, to clean, and prune, has always a pleasant daily recreation before him; his love and care increase with these objects; the simple duty becomes necessary to his existence; and has thus, what so many are miserable for the want of, namely, something to occupy hours of listlessness or leisure. Again, plants are objects of beauty and ornament. Why is yonder lowly cottage more lovely and inviting than the large farmhouse on the other side of the river? Simply because its walls are trellised with the rose and honeysuckle, and its porch with the clambering hop, whose dark-green contrasts so finely with the whitewashed front; while the latter is as cold and uninviting as bare stone-walls can make it. So it is with any apartment, however humble. The little stand of flowers in the window-recess, with their green leaves and brilliant blossoms, adds a charm and freshness to the place; and we will answer for it, *that wherever these* are, the furniture, though mean, will be *clean and neatly arranged*.

The in-door culture of plants is also intimately connected with the sanatory condition of our dwellings. The oxygen of the atmosphere is indispensable to the respiration of animals; it purifies their blood, and affords them internal heat; and, united with certain elements, is expired in the form of carbonic acid gas (a compound of oxygen and carbon.)

This gas, which is deleterious to animal life, constitutes the main nourishment of plants, which absorb it, appropriate its carbon, and restore its oxygen to the atmosphere, again to be breathed in purity by men and animals.

Besides their directly purifying influence, plants also tend indirectly to the health of dwelling apartments. For their sake the window that contains them will be oftener cleaned, the sash will be more frequently thrown open, and the air and sunshine intended for them will also lighten and purify the interior of the apartment.

It is apparent, then, from what we have stated, that every one, rich or poor, the tenant of an humble apartment, or the possessor of a splendid mansion, can equally indulge, according to his means, in the culture of what is lovely, fresh, and fragrant in the vegetable creation. If he cannot afford an elegant case, he can obtain at least his wooden box, or pot of earthenware; and if he cannot purchase what is rare and strange, he can have around him what is equally lovely and fragrant, as the common geraniums, hydrangeas, fuchsias, verbenas, muskplants, lilies of the Nile, and a hundred others which will flourish luxuriantly in the humblest cabin. If his means will not afford ornamental pots and elegant stands, he can at least keep clean and orderly such as he has; always remembering, that the luxuriant and healthy plant will be an ornament of itself, though grown in an old teapot, while the most expensive vase will not compensate for a poor stunted and neglected vegetable. The love and taste for what is beautiful and graceful and healthful in nature, are the great objects to be gained; filth, disorderly habits, and dissipation, are inconsistent with that love; and where it exists genuinely and strong, there also will be cherished the greater regard for external decency and order; and these, in turn, will lead to more elevated thoughts, and to tastes and habits far removed from all that is mean and sensual.

Resident Editors' Table.

GEORGE ALLEN, Jr., ... *Boston*,
C. J. CAPEN, ... *Dedham*,
} RESIDENT EDITORS. {
ELBRIDGE SMITH, *Cambridge*.
E. S. STEARNS, *W. Newton*.

INDUSTRIAL DRAWING: *Comprising the description and uses of Drawing Instruments, the construction of Plane Figures, the Projections and Sections of Geometrical Solids, Architectural Elements, Mechanism, and Topographical Drawing. By D. H. Mahan, LL. D., Prof. of Civil Engineering &c., in the United States Military Academy.*

THIS is the title of a work on Linear Drawing to which I wish to call the attention of your readers. Every one who is called upon to construct any thing, or to direct its construction, wants a knowledge of Instrumental Drawing. To the Architect, the Engineer, the Machinist, &c., such knowledge is indispensable.

Few mechanics have the opportunity to study a thorough course of geometry; nor, if they had, could they be expected to make so great proficiency as to be able to devise the best methods of working such problems as their business would present to them.

And even if we allow to them so much of mathematical skill, it would be very unreasonable to suppose that they should strike out the best use of instruments; the methods which will give their drawings the utmost accuracy, and the tests which will allow them to rely confidently on the perfectness of their work.

Prof. Mahan has put out a work which will enable any one, although he may know nothing of geometry, to acquire all necessary skill in draughting. He has gone into the utmost minuteness; he states, not only what must be done, but describes exactly *how* it can best be done. His first chapter is on Drawing Instruments; he is not content to name the instruments required, but he minutely describes them; he gives, for instance, the lengths and widths of the rulers, how their accuracy may be tested, &c., &c.; the use of scales is described very particularly and very fully: this description occupies five pages.

The second chapter is on the construction of Problems of Points and Straight Lines; this chapter occupies nearly forty pages. It would be difficult to give an idea of the completeness of his directions without an example from his book, and an example could hardly be given without accompanying it by its diagram.

I must be content with saying, that the problem,—to draw a straight line through two given points, occupies about one page.

It is certainly very pleasant, to say no more, to see the *greatest mathematical skill* thus condescending, as it were, to

every little minute direction which will smooth the path of the learner, and tend to render his work more perfect.

The second chapter is taken up with the methods of tracing those figures which can be drawn on a plane surface; the third chapter is on the method of representing the forms and dimensions of bodies.

In this chapter, the author presents the subject of Descriptive Geometry, stripped of its technicalities, and so explained and illustrated, that any one who has accompanied him thus far, will be able to avail himself of all the processes of Descriptive Geometry which he will need. The fourth chapter, on the Drawing of Machinery, is like the third, and possesses its excellences. The fifth and last chapter is on Topographical Drawing.

I do not undertake to *criticise* this work, not belonging to the mysterious We to whom all subjects are equally familiar. I do not hesitate to acknowledge myself incompetent to this task. Mr. Mahan's reputation is too high and too generally known for me to add any thing to it. My object is to call the attention of my brother teachers to a work which will exactly meet their wants, if right-line drawing is taught in their schools, — a work so correct, and so minute and full, that, in using it, a teacher may feel confident that he is not only giving the very best directions, but that he is omitting nothing which it is necessary for the pupil to know for the perfection of his drawing. T.

PRIZE ESSAYS.

The following Prizes for original Essays are offered by the Massachusetts Teachers' Association :—

To the members of the Association, for the best Essay, on either of the following subjects, a prize of *twenty dollars*.

1. "The importance of increasing the number of Female Teachers qualified to give instruction in the Higher Departments of Education."
2. "The Evils and Remedies of Whispering, or Communicating, in School."

To the female teachers of the State, for the best Essay, on either of the following subjects, a prize of *twenty dollars*.

1. "Best Method of Conducting a Primary School."
2. "Thoroughness in Teaching."

The Essays must be forwarded to the Secretary, *Charles J. Capen, Esq., Latin School, Boston*, on or before the 15th of October. Each Essay should be accompanied by a sealed envelope, enclosing the name of the writer. The envelopes accompanying the unsuccessful Essays will not be opened. The prizes will be awarded by an impartial Committee; but no prize will be awarded to an Essay that is not *deemed worthy* of one. The successful Essays will be regarded as *the property* of the Association.

W. H. Wells, President.

Newburyport, April 18, 1853.

NORFOLK COUNTY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

THE Eleventh Semiannual Meeting of this Association will take place on the 9th and 10th of June.

Lectures will be delivered by Rev. Nathaniel Hall, of Dorchester, Carlos Slafter, Esq., Principal of the High School, Dedham, and J. W. Rolfe, Esq., Principal of the High School, Dorchester.

Further particulars will be made known in the next number.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES FOR THE SPRING OF 1853.

At Templeton, May 2d—7th.
At Middleborough, May 9th—14th.
At Haverhill, May 16th—21st.

PRIZE CIRCULAR OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE.

THE American Institute of Instruction offer to members of the Institute and to female teachers, prizes for Original Essays on the following subjects:

1. "The means of producing a Symmetrical Development of the mental Faculties."

2. By what means can the Teacher best advance his own Culture?

To the best Essay, on *either* of these subjects, a prize of *Twenty-Five Dollars* will be awarded; to the best on the *other* subject, a prize of *Fifteen Dollars*. An additional prize of *Ten Dollars* is offered for the best Essay on any other subject having a practical relation to teaching. Each essay should be distinguished by some motto or device, and be accompanied by a sealed envelope bearing the same motto or device, and enclosing the real address of the author.

The Essays must be forwarded by the first of June, to the subscriber, *Central Place*, BOSTON, who will place them in the hands of the Committee. The award will be made known, and the successful Essays read, at the next annual meeting of the Institute in August. They will also be regarded as the property of the Society. The unsuccessful Essays, if applied for, will be returned to their authors with the envelopes unopened. If no composition of sufficient merit should be offered, no prize will be awarded.

In behalf of the Directors,

Boston, Jan. 15, 1853. SOLOMON ADAMS.

From the Pennsylvania School Journal.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY IN CITIES.

THE following proceedings by the authorities of the House of Refuge in Philadelphia, present a difficult but most interesting theme for the pen of the philanthropist. He who shall entitle himself to the reward, by pointing out a remedy for this long continuing and still growing evil, will merit more than he that "taketh," or even *buildeth*, for he will SAVE a city :

PRIZE ESSAY.

At a meeting of the Board of Managers of the House of Refuge, Philadelphia, the following preamble and resolution were adopted, viz. :

Whereas, The increase of Juvenile Delinquency in all the large cities of our country, has claimed the attention of philanthropists ; and *whereas*, the Board of Managers of the House of Refuge, Philadelphia, are desirous that errors in modes of training the young, and other causes coöperating to produce the evil referred to, may be presented in such a form as to claim the serious consideration of parents and guardians throughout the land ; therefore,

Resolved, That the Board of Managers do offer a premium of one hundred dollars for the best essay, and fifty dollars for that next in order of merit, to be awarded by a committee of literary Gentlemen : *Provided*, that such essays shall not exceed fifty octavo pages in length, and shall be contributed before the first day of July, A. D. 1853 ; and whether successful or not in competition, shall be at the absolute disposal of the Board of Managers.

In accordance with the above preamble and resolution, the premiums therein named are now offered without restriction as to the residence of competitors.

The Rt. Rev. Alonzo Potter, Frederick A. Packard, Esq., and Stephen Colwell, Esq., have consented to act as the committee, to examine and adjudge as to the merits of the essays offered in competition.

Competitors for the abovenamed premiums will please address their manuscripts to "John Biddle, No. 6 South Fifth st., Philadelphia," and send therewith, their names and places of residence, under sealed envelopes.

As the object of the Board of Managers of the House of Refuge in offering the abovenamed premiums, is mainly to call the attention of parents and guardians to errors in the prevalent modes of training the young—a subject which should claim the attention of every reader—the undersigned would call the attention of the editors of newspapers generally throughout the United States to this advertisement, and ask the favor of an insertion of it, or the more important parts of it, in the columns of their papers.

By order of the Board of Managers of the House of Refuge.

THOS. P. COPE, *President of H. of R.*
JOHN BIDDLE, Secretary of H. of R.

Philadelphia, Feb., 17 1853.

THE

MASSACHUSETTS TEACHER.

Vol. VI. No. 6.] W. C. GOLDTHWAITE, Editor of this Number. [June, 1853.

VACATIONS.

"Now my task is smoothly done;
I can fly or I can run."

That faithful teachers lead a life of some labor is quite true. No one should think of "waiting on teaching," who is disposed to indolence. This is true in spirit of many other employments as well as teaching. It is nowhere written on divine authority that "the hand of the *indolent* maketh rich."

It is a common remark among our brethren, that the business of teaching is burdensome and wearing. Many think it endangers the health; more are confident that it imposes an uncommon trial upon good temper. Hence those who have taught long, are apt to claim not a little credit for their extremely arduous service in a good cause. They may have been engaged in piloting babes through the alphabet, or in settling the principles of orthography; yet they speak of a half a score of years spent without intermission in pleading the cause of good letters, as if they had done some great thing. A minister of half a century would not repose on his laurels with nearly as much complacency. It is the peculiar trials of a teacher's life and the wearing nature of his employment that save *his* boasting from being vain. The truth is, the pedagogue has a slight longing for the glories of martyrdom, without enduring its fires.

At the same time we admit that teaching is hard; and teaching the youngest no less so than the more mature. Travelling *in a flat country is* said to be harder for beasts of draught *than in a hilly district;* for one set of muscles only is called

into action, and there is little interchange of exertion. So the constancy and sameness of the toil in the business of teaching make an unusual draft upon the power of endurance. To hear a recitation for an hour is frequently harder than to address a public audience for that length of time. When thus employed with a class we are quiescent, to be sure; and there appears no indication of great activity. But we must watch the progress of the recitation, observe every step; now correct a misstatement, now suggest an alteration; and in many cases govern a school-room at the same moment. Perhaps, as is, alas! too often the case, we must let patience have her perfect work amid great trials; we are compelled to listen to barbarisms in translation, or some "otherwise" in the mathematics that is enough "to stir a fever in the blood of age."

To maintain the attention, and keep the surface of things quiet, under these circumstances, requires no small effort, as all thorough teachers most certainly know. He who swings the scythe, does not labor so hard; a forest may be felled with less tiresome effort. And many kinds of mental labor, which all acknowledge to be exhausting, are really less wearing. It seems otherwise to the casual observer, we know. He makes no allowance for the inward exertion, the struggle to suppress emotion, the constantly sustained attention. Accustomed to judge of the amount of force by the immediate effect and noise produced, he deems that the "master" who only sits and *listens* from morning till noon must have an easy task. So teachers who *talk* a great deal in recitation (some such we are sorry to say there are) imagine that they perform the most labor. But it is often far otherwise. Those who make their *pupils* talk to a good purpose, perform far more.

It will be admitted, then, that the teacher's life is sufficiently laborious; if he be earnestly devoted to his work, it is exceedingly so. But are there no saving clauses? Is there no relief from this tedium? Must our burden be like Æsop's basket of stones, with a never diminishing weight? We think not. Few classes of laboring men are so highly favored as we. Is your labor hard, instructor? It continues but few hours in the day. Legislative enactments with regard to ten-hour systems have little application to you.

By common practice you are confined to the school-room but little more than six hours of the twenty-four. Surely we can redeem enough from sleep in the remainder, both for bodily and mental recreation. Under these circumstances he is unfaithful to himself, who has not his hour for bodily exercise, and *his hour too* for self-improvement by converse with books.

But this is not all. Community does not require of us *unintermitting* toil. The wise men who went before us, have

decided (thanks to their memories) that the weight that gives motion to the machinery of our life, descends too certainly and rapidly to the earth; it must be drawn up again and our frames recruited by long seasons of relaxation from toil. Hence most teachers receive a furlough during ten weeks of the fifty-two. "It will soon be vacation," is the thought that supplies strength for many a day of labor. The consideration that our work is not to be long, will frequently render even an irksome task pleasant.

But, fellow teachers, are you spending your vacations as you ought? Ten weeks of the year are no small portion of time, of which to give account. Nearly one-fifth of your time, and that left entirely to your discretion, ought to tell effectually on your improvement as a teacher and a man. Allow us, then, to call your attention to this subject. We have often spoken of your duties when in the field of toil; let us now so far depart from the common track as to speak of your seasons of repose.

We say then, first, do nôt postpone the performance of a multitude of duties to vacation.

This is an almost universal practice; but it is as deceptive as it is common. Is a literary work to be read? Is a scientific treatise to be examined? Is some page of poetry to be perused? Nothing is more common than for scholastic men to fancy that in vacation there will be time for all these; till the vacation, like an over-laden boat, fairly sinks with its load. So much is assigned to be done, that nothing is really done. The case would be less hopeless, if a regular assignment of duties were made and plainly written down. But this is seldom the case; only every thing is delayed. Conscience is appeased for the neglect of duties now, because the consideration of them has been assigned to a future time; but long before that time arrives, memory, it may be, has betrayed her trust, and consequently the thing proposed to be done, is never done.

We believe the case is rare where more is not thus assigned to the weeks of vacation than could be done in that time. And teachers and students need hardly be reminded that weeks of recess always prove the shortest of the year. We say, then, what needs to be done, do now, and postpone to the vacation as little of proposed labor as possible.

Again, let not the season of vacation be an *idle* period. Many persons of studious habits relax all effort when the period of labor is over. The daily bell no longer calls. The confinement has been close; the recess and enlargement are equally grateful. Subjection to rules and periodic calls is followed by an independence of almost all rules. But, fellow teacher, we ask you to listen to no such suggestions of indolence; remember *that a change* of labor is often as effectual as rest from *all labor. Do not think* that all must be given to repose. The

body and the mind must be rested, it is very true, but all this may be accomplished, and still a portion of every day reserved for some page of the classics, some chapter of literary or historical reading, some sketch with pencil, something whereby the sources of pleasure shall be multiplied and our future usefulness increased.

At the commencement of the vacation *fix upon some rule*, reserve some corner of every day for self-improvement. Do you journey? it is well; but no journey will be less pleasant, even amidst the most exciting scenes, for one hour stolen from vanity and sight-seeing for the good of the intellectual part. Do you choose rather to linger at home? Let not sleep, as is too often the case, spread her mantle over all the precious hours of the morning. An hour of study, of self-improving application then, will throw a charm over every employment and travel of that day. Are you a proprietor of the soil, and do you spend the recess in the pursuits of agriculture? An excellent prologue for every day of such recreation will be to repeat the maxim, "Cultivate the soil and the mind." Remember that the earth will breathe a sweeter fragrance from its newly opened furrows and green vales, if you walk them with the feelings of a scholar as well as man.

Your vacation may be spent in *bodily labor* of various kinds, as the manner of some is. Let us remind you that fatiguing labor of any kind indisposes one to mental exertion. The bones become rheumatic from much unaccustomed toil, and one fancies that he is wholly tired, when it is only the body that complains. The mind has perhaps been looking out all day from the loopholes of her retreat, a perfectly silent spectator. In your indisposition to farther toil you will fancy, it is true, that aching bones and strained muscles can do no more; and so it may be. When the shadows begin to grow long on your labor, and point away to the east, it is time to rest. Be it after a day of travel or toil, the aching body now craves repose. But the mind is not rheumatic; it needs no respite. Where now is the pencil or the mathematical instruments, the page of literature, of poetry, of history? Seek the quiet corner of the lounge, or the luxury of the armchair, and while the body rests, put forth one effort more; peruse some charming or instructive page, some discovery of science. And before that day's experience is "rounded with a little sleep," let it be said that as an intellectual man you have "earned a night's repose."

Or, still better, be an *early riser* in vacation. Eastern nations worship the rising sun. We have been taught to condemn idolatry; but it would be hard to say whether the nations of the western world are better employed at that hour or not. Certain it is, that if most of the latter were to worship at the

hour of sunrise, they could only do it as some Mohammedans go to Mecca, that is, by proxy.

Do a wonderful thing, then; anticipate the sun in your rising during your vacation, and give to prayer and to study,

> "The cool, the fragrant, and the silent hour,
> To meditation due and sacred song."

It is base to give up all the early day to indolence, and fringe the morning hours with such a wide border of sleep. If nature is exhausted, allow her deep potations of slumber; there is no better medicine: but to this end retire early, and if necessary, set apart an hour "to dumb forgetfulness," at midday; but wake with the birds and sun, and have at least one early, quiet hour for mental improvement; so that whatever may befall, you may not be obliged to say at night, like the Roman Titus of old, "I have lost a day!"

Be *regular* in your vacations. If you need repose, we have admitted the necessity of having it. But be systematic in your rest as well as in your work. Do not ingloriously abandon all the armor of life. If you have your seasons of recreation, have also, with as much certainty, at least some fragments of each day for study. Do not say that you have nothing to do. You have always a mind to improve, knowledge to increase, new views of truth to acquire, you have to keep yourself apace with the improvements of the age in which you live. No person living, to whom is addressed the command "Be ye perfect," can with truthfulness say, "I have nothing to learn." As a teacher, you would betray a sad deficiency by expressing such a sentiment. Have you no knowledge to acquire for your pupils as well as for yourself?

Suppose you resolve that you will explain some verse of Scripture every morning of the next term, now a text embodying a historical incident, now some geographical fact, some ancient custom, some oriental peculiarity. How it will probably interest your pupils, and throw an air of new importance about the sacred volume! Preparation for such an exercise may well be made now.

Do you set apart a little portion of every week for a conversation or lecture on some fact of history, or phenomenon of nature, or matter of common life? If not, you little know how pleasing such an exercise may become. The number of subjects is of course endless; the more common the topics, the more profitable the exercises may be; for what so interesting as matters of the most familiar concern? What pupil would it not interest, to know respecting the history of tea, and its *mode of preparation?* Coffee will afford quite as much nourishment. *No desk is* without its illustrations of paper; no window

without its glass, and so on through an almost endless variety of subjects. You will certainly do the state some service if you awaken in its future citizens, now before you, a new interest in such things, and teach them to glean knowledge in every field of ordinary toil and observation. They will never forget the information, and long years hence will thank you for it.

Let, then, no week pass without some exercise of this kind. The preparation is far easier than you suppose. Many Encyclopedias and other books published now, are full of the information you will need. The search for it will pay you well; it will increase your knowledge, and at the same time render you more acceptable as a teacher. Your business is not merely to brace the minds of your pupils by discipline (this is your principal work;) but to illuminate all their chambers with the light of knowledge. In vacation, then, you may well think of these things, and mark out some course you will pursue; make a list of subjects you will talk about, and collect the facts and group them ready for use. In this way, also, your vacations may be made to pay a rich tribute to the success of your future labors.

In any thing we have said, we would not imply that you are to neglect your health; that is a matter of the first importance, and must be attended to by rest, by exercise, by change of scene, by travel. But, in the midst of all, remember life's duties. Remember that you will replenish your strength all the more by retaining somewhat of the regularity and system of more laborious days. You are highly favored in being permitted thus, at frequently recurring intervals, to put off the harness. Few men of any profession are so highly favored. Teachers who complain much of the wearing nature of their employment, seldom think of this. But, respected friends, do not abuse your privileges; misspend not your vacations, and they will exert a powerful influence on coming terms. On the other hand, if your seasons of toil are well spent, you will have none but pleasant thoughts of approaching seasons of repose. When they arrive, one by one, can you but reflect that your work has been well done, the thought will give double sweetness to the respite. In the sweet pleasure of relief you can say, like John Milton, in the words of our motto,

"Now my task is smoothly done,
I can fly or I can run."

Light travels six millions of millions of miles in one year; yet *it is supposed* that not less than ten years are required for light *to pass from* the nearest fixed star to the earth.

SIR EDWARD COKE.

Our March number contained a notice of Roger Ascham, one of England's worthies of the time of Queen Elizabeth. He has claims upon our respect as a schoolmaster; his writings will interest all scholars as a specimen of quaint but genuine English.

Cotemporary with him, was another, still more distinguished, Sir Edward Coke, born in 1550. He was distinguished as a lawyer; in the thirty-fifth year of Queen Elizabeth he was chosen speaker of the House of Commons. He passed through a succession of high offices. Soon after the accession of James I, he was knighted; but was less in favor with this sovereign than was Lord Bacon, his rival. His boldness in opposing the court, and prosecuting the minions of the king, made him enemies, and finally cost him his place and the favor of men in power. He, however, meanly made up this breach, by marrying his youngest daughter to a brother of Villiers, and was in a measure reinstated; not, however, so completely as to avoid a short visit to the Tower. His stay there was short; but thereafter he had little of the favor of James. Under Charles I, he enjoyed more of the royal clemency; and near the close of his career, was greatly distinguished, especially as a defender of popular rights. He died at Stoke Pogis in Buckinghamshire, in 1634, and left a fame as a great lawyer through all time.

His principal work is the Institutes of English Law, which, it is true, has no remarkable connection with the business of teaching. But there are some remarks in his chapter on the study of the law, that have, since we first saw them, seemed worthy of all praise, for their truth, and quaint and real beauty. Cicero remarks, in his most beautiful oration for the poet Archias, that all the sciences are connected together by a common bond; "etenim omnes artes, quae ad humanitatem pertinent, habent quoddam commune vinculum, et quasi cognatione quadam inter se continentur." * So there is much, even in the study of the law, that may instruct, and will certainly deeply interest one of our calling. It is wonderful what mines of literary wealth there are in the works of many of these ancient writers. And they seem to us to be none the less beautiful for being somewhat antique. It is a hopeful sign if these ancient treasures are beginning to be sought unto. But we dislike to see them in a modern dress. It is like handing Abraham and the patriarchs over to a modern tailor. We prefer to see the

* For *all the arts which* pertain to a liberal training, have a certain common *bond, and are held together,* as it were, by some relationship among themselves.

gem in its ancient setting. Give us Lord Bacon, for instance, in a volume that is somewhat mouse-eared, and abounds in parentheses from the moths; and John Flavel, in his own veritable folios, half as long as their author.

In the extract which we give, there are truly noble sentiments, which are as applicable to the school-room as the court-room. We would that all teachers and pupils might never forget, that "the *reason* of the law is the life of the law;" and that "he is happy who has been able to learn the *causes* of things;" *felix qui potuit causas rerum cognoscere!*

"Reason is the life of the law, nay, the common law itself is nothing but reason, which is to be understood of an artificial perfection of reason, gotten by long study, observation and experience, and not of every man's natural reason; for *nemo nascitur artifex.** This legal reason *est summa ratio.*† And therefore, if all the reason that is dispensed into so many several heads were united into one, yet could he not make such a law as the law of England is; because by many successions of ages, it hath been fined and refined by an infinite number of grave and learned men, and by long experience grown to such a perfection for the government of this realm as the old rule may justly be verified of it, *Neminem oportet esse sapientiorem legibus:* that is, no man (out of his own private reason) ought to be wiser than the law, which is the perfection of reason.

"*Ratio est anima legis;*‡ for then are we said to know the law, when we apprehend the reason of the law; when we bring the reason of the law so to our own reason, that we perfectly understand it as our own, and then, and never before, we have such an excellent and inseparable property and ownership therein, as we can neither lose it, nor any man take it from us, and as will direct us, (the learning of the law is so chained together,) in many other cases. But, if by your study and industry, you make not the reason of the law your own, it is not possible for you long to retain it in your memory.

"The reason of the law is the life of the law, for though a man can tell the law, yet if he know not the reason thereof, he shall soon forget his superficial knowledge. But when he findeth the right reason of the law, and so bringeth it to his natural reason, that he comprehendeth it as his own, this will not only serve him for the understanding of that particular, but of many others; for *cognitio legis est copulata et complicata,*§ and this knowledge will long remain with him.

"Our student shall observe that the knowledge of the law is

* *No one is* born an artist. † Is the highest reason.
‡ *Reason is* the life of the law.
§ *The* knowledge of the law is manifold and complicated.

like a deep well, out of which each one draweth according to the strength of his understanding. He that reacheth deepest, seeth the amiable and admirable secrets of the law, wherein I assure you the sages of the law in former times have had the deepest reach. And as the bucket in the well is easily drawn to the uppermost part of the water (for *nullum elementum in suo proprio loco est grave;*)* but take it from the water, and it cannot be drawn up but with great difficulty; so, albeit the beginnings of this study seem difficult, yet, when the professor of the law can dive into the depths, it is delightful, easy, and without heavy burden, so long as he keep himself in his own proper element."

And farther on, our good author observes: "Littleton often saith '*And the cause is*,' which is worthy of observation; for then are we truly said to know anything, when we know the true cause thereof. *Felix qui potuit causas rerum cognoscere.*"

"There be three kinds of unhappy men:

"*Qui scit et non docet;* he that hath knowledge and teacheth not.

"*Qui docet et non vivit;* he that teacheth and liveth not thereafter.

"*Qui nescit et non interrogat;* he that knoweth not and doth not enquire to understand."

A NEW WAY TO HAVE A LIBRARY.—We heard a teacher narrating the following incident. He had in his school a young man from one of the Canadian provinces, who had enjoyed no early advantages for learning, and who now, though just entering manhood, was resolutely determined to make amends for the misfortunes and defects of the past. He was one day meanly derided by one of the precocious pupils, found in every school-room, for some little mistake that betrayed his former ignorance. Turning to the self-confident lad, he briefly expressed his opinion of him thus: "*Isaac, what you don't know would make a very thick book!*"

Engrave everywhere upon the mind of your pupil the noble remark of Lord Coke, "*The reason of the law is the life of the law.*"

"Then if one's own heart is at ease, sunshine is happiness itself."

*No element in its own place is burdensome.

LABOR WORSHIP.

BY EDWARD YOUL.

"Laborare est orare." *

Days and nights not given to service,
Turn thy life to sinful waste;
Be no laggard, be no sluggard,
Live not like a man disgraced.

See, creation never resteth;
Ever God creates anew;
To be like him, is to labor;
To adore him, is to do.

Do thy best, and do it bravely;
Never flag with under-zeal;
This is writ, as scriptures holy,
"Thou must either work or steal."

None have mandate to be idle,
Folded hands are vilest crime;
God's command is, "Labor, worship,
In thy youth and in thy prime."

Pray, "The early rain and the latter,
Lord, withhold not from our toil;
Fructify the seed we scatter
With this worship in the soil."

Ever idleness blasphemeth,
In its prayer, in its praise;
How shall Heaven accept his incense,
Who is idle all his days?

Be a workman, oh my brother!
Trust not worship to the tongue;
Pray with strenuous self-exertion;
Best by hands are anthems sung!

The atmosphere, the light, the earth, the grass, the falling leaves, when they have been, as it were, carved into shapes of beauty by our studies, will ever after stand by us like angels, and suggest pleasant thoughts to us amidst the dull cares of life.

* Some of our readers may have doubts respecting the orthodoxy of this poem, especially of the motto, *To labor is to pray*. We confess as much. Whether the author refers to *such* prayer as

"climbs the ladder Jacob saw,"

or not, we cannot tell. With this qualification or without, we do not think it will *injure any one*. Its ideas respecting *work* are evidently calculated for places on *this meridian*." Teachers work as faithfully as any one; why should they not *read this poem?*

AN OBSTACLE TO IMPROVEMENT.

"Small knowledge we dig up with endless toil."—*Young.*

REGULARITY and punctuality of attendance are in the highest degree desirable. The reports of some schools within our knowledge are exceedingly favorable in this respect. The names of many pupils are reported, who are never absent, never late. This reminds one of a millennial age in teaching. But such cases are rare. People now-a-days are so anxious to obey the apostolic injunction and "prove all things," that frequently we we must not expect to have the same pupils under our care longer than a few months, and perhaps a few weeks. This is eminently true of many of our higher seminaries. It seems to be not less so of many of our common schools; for although the pupils may not change, the teachers do; which is productive of even more disastrous effects.

Not unfrequently every successive term brings a new incumbent to office. Whether this be done because the former teacher is deemed unfit, or because the committee-men have a diffidence about retaining a good teacher, and so depriving the rest of the world of his services, does not plainly appear.

We cannot be held responsible for impossibilities. We think that six months, or even a year, and that of uninterrupted attendance, is short time enough, (nay, too short,) to make deep and lasting impressions upon the mind of the scholar. What shall be done in every case we cannot tell. Certainly the teacher, as the first thing, should earnestly desire to have it otherwise. His most earnest efforts should be turned in that direction. If, as in many of our higher seminaries, it results from the shortness of the terms and the changing nature of the school, he can do little. He must heat the iron as hot as he can in a short time, and strike hard and fast. Perhaps he will appear to lose all his labor; and it may be, on the other hand, that impressions of surpassing beauty will be made even in that short time, which will be to his praise and honor hereafter. That teacher has much need of faith. He may well for his encouragement remember the words of Scripture, "In the morning sow thy seed; in the evening withhold not thy hand; for thou knowest not whether shall prosper, this or that."

If the difficulty we speak of proceeds from frequent change of place in the teacher, we of course can suggest no remedy, so far as it is the fault of others. It is truly sad that any of our calling should be so much like certain observances in the *Episcopal Church, called* "movable feasts." A rolling stone *gathers no moss; so a* teacher that is constantly moving, has

little prospect of benefiting others or enriching himself. But we should not be blind to the fact that quite a large portion of the schools of New England are still taught in this way. We would not say a word to discourage teachers thus employed. Past experience proves that much can be done. Such persons have *some* advantages; they have no antipathies in pupils to conquer; they do not usually commence their labors after a vacation, the weeks of which have been hardly sufficient to recruit an exhausted frame. He is a poor teacher who, when brought in contact with a group of pupils, for a single term even, with all the disadvantages suggested, does not accomplish much, and erect a monument more lasting than stone.

But there is another difficulty; it is a great irregularity and want of punctuality in pupils. Even these short periods of attendance we have spoken of, are broken by many a long parenthesis for genteel amusements, and for housework. How many cases of comfortable sickness! How pressing is the labor of the farm! What long errands to the shoemaker or store! How tardily the congress of youthful delegates from the kitchens and barns of the village, assemble on a winter's morning! The truthful parent fancies that a delay of a few minutes can make but little difference. And alas! he reasons too correctly; for if his child is habitually late, it makes indeed little difference whether or not he is there at all.

What can be done? The teacher has no authority to command attendance. He has no magnetism to quicken the lingering footsteps, and draw in the reluctant pupil to his task. What can he do? The evil is a great one; no school, no pupil can prosper, if habitually tardy or irregular. Every late footstep is giving a lesson to future life; tardy scholars will certainly make tardy men. But what course shall the teacher pursue?

In the first place let him deprecate the evil. Again, let him *not worry* over it, or indeed over any thing else; worrying shortens more lives than intemperance or the sword. Let him be invariably prompt himself; actions speak louder than words. Let him keep a careful record of all tardinesses and absences, and call the attention of the school to them. If circumstances permit him to exercise authority, let him do it. At least let him keep a careful record of these matters and show the offenders how they look on paper. One prevailing fault of teachers is a neglect of keeping an account with their school. A fai and well-kept record of all irregularities of attendance, and c the character of recitations, will be of as great service in schoc *keeping* as a system of maps in geography.

the teacher, if possible, kindle some ambition to
mbers of the school; the cure is ne

effected then. If this be not attainable, let the matter be referred to the parents, at their homes, or on a meeting of the district. Show them that this is a question in "loss and gain." Show them that an absence of one day in the week will take away one half the benefit of the term. Show them that a tardiness of one half hour each session, will in an ordinary term make eleven or twelve days, and result in a loss of eleven twelfths of the expected gain, besides entailing upon them the odious habit of being forever a little after the time.

We doubt not that with such representations you would rouse at home a disposition to coöperate with you. Can you accomplish this, and effect a reform, you may reckon it one of the noblest fruits of your labor for your pupils. Punctuality is the life of business. Lord Nelson remarked that he owed much of his success in life, to the fact, that he had made it a rule to be always fifteen minutes before the time.

But if scholars, after all, will be transient, and your pupils and their parents cannot be reformed, "fret not thyself in any wise to do evil." We know not what others may advise; but we recommend that such pupils be referred at once to the "committee on unfinished business," and as soon as possible to the "committee on foreign relations!"

WHAT IS DONE, HAVE WELL DONE.

"Work once well done, is twice done."

MUCH of our instruction lacks that vigor of discipline, and the nerve, and *persistency*, that will entitle us to future remembrance.

Would you, O teacher, be long remembered? Then do this day's work well. Are you employed with the youngest class of pupils? Then so much the more important your work; for on the solidity of the foundation depends the permanency of the whole. Are you daguerreotyping the numeration table or the columns of addition, on the mind of a pupil or a class? Do it well, oh, we beseech you! do it well. Let no man have the honor of doing that work after you. Be daunted by no discouragements. If the sun goes down while you are clambering over the first unit's figure, then let the night rest only on a parenthesis in your labor. Let the morrow find you engaged in the same toilsome ascent, dragging up your pupil after *you*. *And if many* suns rise and set before the end is *attained, still resolve that it shall be done.*

And so through all the departments of instruction. Resolve that this thing shall be learned, that principle shall be understood, that intricate places shall be cleared up; and let it be known that from your decisions there is no appeal; and that any attempt to overleap or evade your will, is just as futile as haggling with the decrees of fate.

Do not understand us to refer by this to any pestering particularity, which some teachers mistake for thoroughness. They will tell you of a dozen ways to prove simple subtraction, and make their pupils perform a perfect incubation for a week over a pair of Arabic figures to hatch out some new relation. All this may be good for an Encyclopedia, but it is not in place in the school-room. We refer merely to a practical and thorough knowledge of any given rule or process; and this the pupil should have just so far as he extends his explorations. Is it a page of the classics? let not your pupil turn over another leaf, till he can construe it as rapidly as his mother tongue. Literal and rapid translation is the best rule of prosody. Is it bank discount? let him not dismiss that theme till he can write a note and obtain an endorser, and manage his "days of grace," and *tell* how he does it too, as knowingly as one who walks up the steps of a bank to obtain a loan.

If this has not been the way in which you have shaded your pictures heretofore, then, fellow teachers, when you next go to your school-room, we ask you to put your determination to have it so, in the imperative mood. Without one word of fretfulness, or any offensive show of authority; with nothing on your part but clear ideas and an inflexible will, your pupils will soon know what vigorous discipline means.

And oh! never forget that this discipline we speak of, to be serviceable, must be expended upon the reason, and not upon the memory. The fault of past instruction has been, not, perhaps, that it cultivated the memory too much, but the thinking powers too little. Would you, therefore, benefit your pupils? teach them how to think, how to analyze and reflect. Make every process a reasoning, reflective process. For this purpose you will rely mostly on the mathematical branches; for as Lord Bacon says, "If a man's wits be wandering, let him study the mathematics;" and for the mass of pupils, arithmetic will take the precedence of every other branch.

In this study, then, as indeed in every other, have done forever with that careless, rapid way, that proves nothing, knows nothing, only that "the rule says so." Never take the pupil's assertion that he understands this part or that. Nothing is *more* deceptive. Human nature does not love the labor of *patient thought*. Hence the shifts and subterfuges that the *pupil will* resort to, to avoid the trial, are endless.

Stand up in your firm determination, and see that the pupil perceives the *wherefore* at every step, and *gives it unasked.* Let every process be reasoned out; let every dark passage be threaded through and through, till the footsteps fall with unfearing confidence in the blindest part. This may be hard for the teacher, and hard for the taught; but there is no excellence without great labor. If the pupil recoils, hold him firmly to the work. If the parent interferes, tell him, as Ceres told the father of Triptolemus of old, "Unless I hold your son in the flame and bury in him coals of fire, I cannot make him wholly immortal."

We say again, it is hard. It is this that leads the good teacher often to say, "Who is sufficient for these things?" And any thing but an indomitable will, will sometimes yield. But if you are endeavoring to invigorate your pupil with the power of consecutive thought, you are in the right. And whoever may doubt, whoever may deride, whoever may oppose, persevere; consider it as your "mission," to wake up human souls to the ability and luxury of thought. Tire not; but every day march all your forces against the castle of indolence in the soul, and with your blows as heavy as sledge-hammers, demonstrate on its never opened doors the wonderful proposition to them, that the powers that sleep therein, are capable of a few moments of unbroken wakefulness. It is thus that we expect to give perpetuity to our work.

"'T is thus that painters write their names at Co!"

You might punctuate the whole earth with pyramids and obelisks, and furrow out Amazons with the point of your cane, and your work would not be so permanent as this. True, your fame or reward may not be present; community may compensate you but poorly; your pupils even may not esteem you *now.* But it was a noble remark of Kepler, "God has waited six thousand years for a beholder; cannot Kepler wait a few years for a reader?" It has been the way with the world's best heroes, to go through scenes of fiery trial, and then suffer an early apotheosis for want of bread.

"Seven cities fought for Homer dead,
Through which, Homer living, begged his bread."

Nevertheless, the good teacher is one of society's best and most permanent benefactors. Then, fellow laborers, linger here over this thought, and learn the sustaining lesson, taught in the school of the glorious prophets and martyrs, and heroes of all time:

"*Still* achieving, still pursuing,
Learn to labor and to wait."

SHALL WE TEACH UNTIL OLD AGE?

"Si Dominus voluerit, et vivamus."—*James* 4, 15.

It is the reproach of our business as teachers, that so many abandon it after a little trial. It proves a stepping-stone to almost every other preferment. Candidates for the law and ministry generally pass through it on the way to the pulpit and bar. It is believed that we also qualify as many for the service of Æsculapius as all our colleges. It is the scope of the three professions to minister to distresses of mind, estate and body, and primarily to relieve them. But it is strongly to be suspected that entanglements of either kind sometimes suffer like the case of the woman mentioned in Scripture, who from much professional advice, grew "nothing better, but rather worse."

The inference is, that many in the so-called learned professions would better have stayed in their early employment, where there is thought to be more chance of doing good and less of doing harm. It has been said of the three professions, what we believe cannot be said of teaching, that they are founded on the sin of Adam. It might be one of the "difficult points of the law," and probably would need a "consultation" of doctors; but it could not but be profitable to inquire how far they tend to perpetuate the effects of it.

Many consider our business, like the State of Vermont, a good state to migrate from. In addition to the contributions we make to the learned professions, our "alumni" are to be found pursuing every calling. There is hardly a farmer, but what has sown the seeds of knowledge; not a son of Vulcan, but what has sought to "rivet" the attention of wayward youth to the unwelcome business of the school-room; and we presume not a member of the "ordnance department," even, but what has taught "the young idea how to shoot," at least one term. Our country is perfectly safe, if its safety depends merely upon the school-master's being "abroad."

But this is not the full extent of our loss. A large proportion of our teachers in this State, where the pilgrims landed, are females. Not a year passes without witnessing the defection of many of these. They go, but never return. They hardly begin to plant the seeds of truth, when they are found "conjugating the verb *to love*," and in the next paper they advertise a family school. The case is hopeless; no increase of pay or any remedy can reach the disorder. And what is most singular, considering the great love many profess for teaching, we never *knew a patient feel badly about it*, even when the progress of *the disorder* is most rapid. Thousands are thus cut off from *our ranks* every year.

We seriously suggest whether or not this matter should be referred to the legislature another session, and a bill be reported by the committee on education against it. But any pains and penalties enacted in this matter, must lie against the clerical profession also; for of the multitudes who have disappeared in this way, scarcely one has been "executed without the benefit of a priest."

But these remarks do not answer the question which was proposed at the head of this article; they only show, by way of plainest inference, that many of our number will *not* remain in the calling until old age. But there are others, a goodly number, who are, in the strict sense, professional teachers; they have been long in the profession, and seem likely to continue. Many of them, we are sorry to know, are still in the singular number; but if they ever decline the paradigm of life as far as the plural, it will in their case involve no change in relation to their calling. The ranks of those who are interested in the business of education will not in such a desirable event necessarily lose one by subtraction, but we hope gain one by the opposite rule. To such we speak, and also to those who are from time to time entering our ranks; shall we teach until old age?

In replying to this inquiry, we would preface every remark with the words of our motto: "*Si Dominus voluerit et vivamus, faciemus hoc aut illud.*"

And as we, most of us, eat at the public crib, we must employ the sign of the subjunctive mood once more, and say also, that we will do this or that, *if* community seems to need us. It will be well for us to remember, that if we do not continue faithful, and indeed become more faithful, that most worthy body, the public, whom we serve and live upon, may pity our miseries, and give us leave of absence much sooner than we wish.

We say again, shall we continue in our present calling while we have strength? or shall we have devoted to it the years of our inexperience and indiscretion, and then abandon it? Will one marry a rich wife, and so "take orders" for a life of laziness? Will one become a farmer, and another a merchant? Will one become a doctor, and so save people from the trouble of going

"The roundabout way to the world below?"

Why have we so few grey-haired men in our ranks? Is it for the same reason that there are but few aged citizens in unhealthy districts? Are our brethren and fathers all worn out before the almond-tree begins to flourish? Or are they obliged to abandon *the business* because community rejects the counsel *of the old men, like Rehoboam* of old? Or is it more probably

the case, that teachers themselves become tired of the business, and find that other employments hold out greater inducements of ease or profit? Whatever may be the reason, it is an unfortunate fact that it is so. It is hard to elevate any business if its own followers despise it. When at New Bedford, last fall, we noticed the youthful character of the Massachusetts Association, we were forcibly impressed with the thought, that either most teachers die young, or they find their business an excellent stepping-stone to something else. In all this there is a silent condemnation of the pursuit; actions speak more forcibly than mere words.

Why is it, brethren? Is not our business a good one? What says Socrates? "No man goeth about a more goodly purpose, than he that is mindful of the good bringing up, both of his own and other men's children." If it is good for the morning, is it not also good for the meridian and the twilight of life? There is nothing in its effect upon the health, that need make us disdain it as soon as we pass the zenith. One might have a clear head, and be at peace with his stomach in the practice of pedagogy till the age of the patriarchs, for aught we know.

Or is the effect upon your mind and heart, bad? Does pedagogy asperate your temper, brother? Are you afraid to venture amid the infirmities of old age with the irritations and labors of this business upon you? We would have you think otherwise. We would have you nobly conquer yourself; "he that ruleth his own spirit, is better than he that taketh a city;" be not irritated; let every year that passes over you, witness a higher degree of self-control; bear life's burdens patiently. Let a longer experience only fit you more perfectly for the discharge of your duty. Grow yearly in knowledge; advance even-paced with the progressing age. Be more and more young and happy in spirit (as you may) as you "see the day approaching." And if you are spared till the shadows grow long; if nature and providence sift down the snows of a ripe old age upon you, we are persuaded that you will not regret the choice. So far as this world is concerned, you will without doubt look back on duties well performed; a life has been well spent. Many will have grown up in the light of your examples; multitudes will thank you for faithful instruction and encouraging words. This will be better to you than wealth or popular applause; it will, so far as worldly considerations can, cheer the evening of life, and breathe

"A delicate fragrance, comforting to the soul."

What we speak of is not impossible; for we have venerable *teachers* among us, to whom we look with reverence, all

the greater, from the fact that they stand almost alone. Homer speaks of Nestor, at the time of the Trojan war, as having survived two generations of men, and living then among the third. These fathers of whom we speak, have survived even more generations of teachers. As the wave of youthful influence has ebbed and flowed around them, they have found themselves increasingly happy, and we believe, increasingly useful. We think of them with respect; we trust they may live long to bear the burdens of their calling, as well as to reap the fruits of their many well-spent years. We honor their choice of teaching as a permanent profession; we can hope for this brief article no more success, than that it may induce some who are now young, to imitate their example.

For ourselves and for the cause of education, we earnestly address every venerable teacher, in the words of the Latin poet to Cæsar Augustus,

"Serus in coelum redeas!" *

LENGTH OF RECITATIONS.

How much time do you spend in recitation? Many teachers spend an hour. Others, and especially those who have large schools and few or no helpers, devote much less. We well remember the time when in the early days of our teaching we thought ourselves fortunate if we could redeem even fifteen minutes from distraction for a class. With this allowance we felt ourselves very much cramped, and could never rise from the recitation feeling that we had done justice to our pupils or the subject. We naturally felt that those were highly favored who could devote one spacious and roomy hour to a single exercise.

But experience has taught us many things. And we write this article to suggest what has become our later impression on this subject. It is simply this, that a long recitation is not necessarily better than a short one. They who are pressed for time, enjoy some advantages from the very necessity of the case. They must be punctual in commencing, they must be prompt in conducting the exercise; they can allow little time for ignorance to plan a concealment or escape; they cannot deliberate long upon a doubtful lesson; they will not be likely to use great circumlocution in telling a class that their work is a failure and must be tried again. Such teachers will also have little time to talk; the pupils will need it all. These are certainly *some* of the characteristics of a good recitation.

On *the other hand, although* much time is desirable, the very

* *Late* may you return to heaven.

fact that there is no necessity to hurry, will with many teachers beget a tardiness on commencing, a lack of stir and animation in the progress of the exercise, which are by no means characteristic of the most profitable mode. The great fault will be, that the pupils will have time to hesitate, to learn or attempt to learn, when they should only *recite*. If the teacher is not at all restricted in time, how strong the temptation to yield to this pernicious habit, and accept from the scholar workmanship that lacks the last touch and finish of the perfect scholar! If it is the Mathematics, the pupil will need a little time to calculate upon the mode of solving the question, when his business now is simply to *do* it. The calculation should have been made before. If it is a recitation in the classics, the pupil will be suffered to indulge the fancy that it is enough to obtain an idea of his author's meaning, without clothing that idea in English terms. He must pronounce many words before he translates them. He must with considerable stammering pick out from a company of English synonymes, the one that is on the whole thought best for his use; as a poor trader fumbles in his drawer for the coin that will best make "change."

All this pronunciation of separate words, this stammering and hesitation, should have been when the lesson was learned, or rather not learned; and anything that will induce the teacher to say at once, "*My time is precious; I have not leisure for such work*," will be a mercy to the pupil. Under such circumstances, dear teacher, learn to say to your pupils, "*Learn your lesson again; when you are ready to recite, I shall have time to hear; a few minutes will do for a perfect lesson; a whole day is not long enough for a poor one.*"

If pupils fail in preparation, it is the way with some instructors, to multiply explanations, and by much question-asking and talking on their part, eke out a very respectable exercise. This is the worst treason. It fosters in the scholar the idea that his lesson is learned, when he has not begun to learn it. The design of recitation is two-fold: to ascertain if the task assigned has been performed; and give appointments and needful explanations for the next. When you are well assured that the work has or has not been well performed, you have accomplished the principal purpose of the meeting. Whether you have been in your place five minutes or fifty, why linger longer, except to appoint and explain for the next effort?

We will not continue these remarks farther, lest we weary you and slide into the very fault we condemn. We have no objection to your spending a whole day in hearing a lesson, if you *choose; it* is well to explain much to pupils and have them *review* and repeat. If you will only be prompt and thorough, and not conduct your recitations to a tiresome length, it matters

little how long they are. But the inference we desire from all these remarks is, that for most classes and teachers, a recitation of thirty minutes is better than an hour.

THE GOOD NIGHT OF THE BIRDS.

BY MRS. L. H. SIGOURNEY.

It was a sabbath evening,
In spring's most glorious time,
When tree and shrub and early flower,
Were in their fragrant prime;
And when the cloudless sun declined,
A glow of light serene,
A blessing on the world he left,
Came floating on the scene.

Then from the fragrant hedge-row,
A gentle descant stole,
And with its tide of melody,
Dissolved the listening soul.
The tenants of that leafy lodge,
Each in its downy nest,
Poured forth a fond and sweet "good night,"
Before they sunk to rest.

That tender parting carol,
How wild it was, and deep,
And then with soft harmonious close,
It melted into sleep.
Methought in yonder land of praise,
Which faith delights to view,
True-hearted, peaceful worshippers,
There would be room for you.

Ye give us many a lesson
Of music high and rare,
Sweet teachers of the lays of heaven,
Say, will ye not be there?
Ye have no sins like ours to purge
With penitential dew:
Oh, in the clime of perfect love,
Is there no place for you?

Ours is a world,

"*Where living things* and things inanimate
Do speak, at Heaven's command, to eye and ear.

AGRICULTURE.

"Ye generous Britons, venerate the plough!"

HAVE you a small farm? Perhaps yours is the happy lot of those who have obeyed the fifth commandment, and are receiving the reward of filial obedience; it may be that you "live long upon the land" left you by honored sires. Horace, the Roman poet, speaks most charmingly of those who cultivate paternal acres.* There is nothing pleasanter than that the same lands, and the same hearth-stone, should pass down from sire to son. There is nothing pleasanter than to pitch our tent on the ground where our fathers lived, and labored, and prayed, and from which, when it was their time to die, they went up to "seats prepared above." The very soil has the "smell of a field that the Lord hath blessed."

Or if such be not the history of your abode, it may be that you have set up your household gods under a purchased oak, and are still the fortunate owner of some part of the map of the world. If not, it may be that around the spot, where like Paul at Rome, you live in your "own hired house," there are a few rented acres, where you can imitate the example of Cincinnatus, and follow "the sacred plough." We hope that you are in some way connected with agriculture, and smell the fragrance of newly ploughed earth. Nature or art advertises no better medicine. Brutus of old showed that he was no fool, by falling down upon the earth, and acknowledging with a kiss, that she was his mother. The earth is the common mother of us all. From her prolific womb we sprang in the beginning; on her green and fruitful bosom we were cradled in our infancy, and have been nourished to manhood. The earth supports us; "the king himself is served by the field."

But it is not merely that the earth gives us food and support; it is, in an eminent sense, the source of *health*. It is said of one of the ancient giants, that he was strong only when he *touched the earth*. Hercules perceiving this, lifted him up in his powerful gripe till his feet no longer felt the ground, when he was weak as other men, and was easily slain. There is as much medical wisdom in this simple story, as in a doctor. Would we be well? We must escape the confinement of the school-room, and study, and the aristocracy of brick walls and pavements, and go to the earth, whose children we are; from whose bosom we came in the beginning, and to whose bosom we shall return

* "Beatus ille, qui procul negotiis,
Ut prisca gens mortalium,
Paterna rura bobus exercet suis."

Happy the man, who far from troublesome business, like the ancient race of *mortals*, cultivates with his oxen, paternal lands.

again for a long and quiet sleep, when we are "weary with the march of life." How many disorders, for which we now torture chemistry, and ransack the botany of foreign climes, in search of medicine, would be healed by an attention to agriculture! We ourselves were once sick; the pathway of life seemed to diverge for a long season down from the hills of youth and health, and draw very near to the "house appointed for all the living;" long and dark shadows from the future, unseen world, fell upon our road; but we cried like the Psalmist, "Take me not away in the midst of my days!" As a means of restoration, our feet were soon directed back to the "paternal acres," of which we have spoken; and, (we are always grateful to remember,) a change for the better soon took place. Many years have since been added to our life, for which, it is true, the world has no particular occasion to give thanks; but we should be ungrateful, indeed, did we not remember, and often acknowledge our obligations to the business of agriculture.

What it proved to us, it has in many instances proved to others. For health, for long life, for true independence, there is no business like the cultivation of the soil. Would you preserve your health? we ask you in some way, though it may be limited, to remember the pursuits of farming. Are you sick or languid? seek the open air; cultivate some branch of natural science; become interested in growing plants; pay a sisterly visit to the garden at sunrise, like mother Eve; handle the hoe, and rake, and plough, and you will soon see the wisdom of the Creator in placing our first parents, that they might be always healthy and happy, amid the attractions of rural life.

But it is not merely for yourself that you are to regard this. A large portion of those you teach, are either to follow the plough, or to be the light and joy of the homes of husbandmen. Have you nothing to do for them? can you exert no influence which shall prepare them for the better discharge of the duties of future life? We mistake greatly if you cannot; either your influence is much less than we suppose, or you are powerless on this subject alone. You can *speak most favorably* of a business which must occupy the future life of so many of your pupils, and which God and good men have so signally honored.

> "In ancient times, the sacred plough employed
> The kings, and awful fathers of mankind."

You can give much *instruction*, that shall bear favorably on the interest of the farm. This applies especially to those who teach in our higher seminaries. There is not a science but what may be made to illustrate the principles of farming. How rich *the science of* chemistry is, for instance, in disclosures *upon this subject!* Let not the future farmer remain entirely

ignorant of these things. Let him be assured that he will need all these aids; that there is no business that affords scope for more varied and extensive knowledge than farming.

You can also *direct* those who are inquiring for a pursuit in life, to this most substantial and independent occupation. Your pupils are placed under your care at the forming period of life. Have you no care with regard to their future pursuit? Shall they fall in with the common impression, that all the success of life consists in avoiding its brown hands and hard work? Shall one ingraft himself on to the association of gentlemen-drones, and follow a cigar through life? Shall one become a vagabond agent? Shall another intrench himself over some country store, and pull the teeth of society? Shall another after a few weeks of study take the degree of physic, and during the rest of his life, make unoffending society take the physic itself? Shall another still become a merchant, and strangle himself with his first invoice of cotton tape? No, dear friends; so far as you can, inspire more sensible ideas in your pupils; teach them that he is the best "gentleman," who *does* the most for society; that brown hands and a sweaty face are no disrepute. We sincerely thank the poet for this picture;

> "His face is like the tan,
> His brow is wet with honest sweat;
> He earns whate'er he can,
> And looks the whole world in the face,
> For he owes not any man."

To the ladies, who form so large a part of our number, we need scarcely say a word upon this subject. We look upon ourselves as sure of their influence in every good cause; without it we can do little. We appeal to them in behalf of the farmers; in hopes that those who have so much to do in giving complexion to the tastes and pursuits of coming life, will not be unmindful of the claims of this large and respectable class. We shall not appeal in vain; for we believe that no sentiment is more common among the sex, that that of the old king Uzziah, spoken of in the second of Chronicles; "for he loved husbandry." For women, we think husbandry the most engaging business in the world.

May we not then, fellow teachers, ask your attention to this matter? Speak a good word for this most noble occupation; adapt your instructions to it so far as you can; the time may not be and we hope is not far distant, when we shall have text-books with reference to this very subject. The great business of the *school-room*, it is true, is to learn how to learn, and to cultivate *the thinking* powers; but we can also convey much knowledge *and prepare* the pupil to some extent for the practical duties of

future life. Why is not a knowledge of the soils and the food and growth of plants as useful and proper as the shape of New Holland and the librations of the moon? Endeavor to form a taste for these pursuits; surround your school-rooms with flowers and plants and trees; at least, let the air of summer winnow in at the open casement, through geraniums and creeping vines. In these various ways and others, you can do much for agriculture, and serve a good cause.

And when from long labor your strength fails, or the public will charitably releases you from the school-room, make yourselves life-members of the society of farmers. Remember the wise words of the son of Sirach in the Apochrypha; "Despise not laborious work and husbandry, which the Most High hath ordained."

HOW DO YOU TEACH ARITHMETIC?

He that has to do with young scholars, especially in mathematics, may perceive how their minds open by degrees, and how it is exercise alone that opens them.—*Locke.*

It is our belief that for most pupils in our schools there is no study more important than Arithmetic. Every succeeding year of our experience as teachers has only raised the estimate we have placed upon it. Mathematical branches of some kind cannot be dispensed with in the business of instruction. For the patient application of thought and for vigorous training, we have no other branch that will supply their places. But to these branches we know of no other practicable introduction than Arithmetic. Hence we have long thought that if pupils do not learn Arithmetic well, they will not become well versed in the higher mathematics, and if they fail of the wholesome and needful discipline of these severe studies, they will be very sure to lack some of the qualities of a well-cultivated mind.

A very, very large proportion of the pupils of our State will not usually pass higher in mathematical training than a thorough knowledge of mental and written Arithmetic. We know indeed that many will pass on *farther;* but of the hundreds who have entered their names for Algebra within our immediate observation, we have not found scores or even tens that exhibited the marks of good training in Arithmetic. Our suggestion to such pupils has generally been, "You will make the most rapid progress by going immediately back."

It is nearly lost time for such pupils to attend to any higher branch. *The foundation* is not laid, and where is the possible *use of erecting a superstructure?*

Our suggestion to teachers therefore is, that much of their usefulness to their pupils will depend upon their mode of teaching Arithmetic. It may be taught so as to be no more potential as a discipline than the Catechism: on the other hand, it may be so managed that it shall act like a specific in awakening the power of thought. The result of our observation is, that if pupils pass through common Arithmetic well, they will pass through every other branch of study well.

How do you teach Arithmetic then? Do you allow your pupils to work the problems and bring them to you and exhibit the answers as proof that their work is done? Do you "admit them to confirmation" when in addition to this they say the rule? Do you oblige them to give the *wherefore* of every step? Do you compel them to become so far imbued with the spirit and sense of the process as to readily suggest from their own minds an obvious and natural problem in that process? Do you give them such a comprehension of the matter, that when called upon for the "rule" they shall rather describe what they have done, than repeat the set phrases of books? In the present state of text-books, do you feel often as if you could do better without than with them? If not, if this is the way you instruct, dear teacher, we know not how much occasion the good genius of education will have to thank you for your labor. We fear that your work will not be to your praise hereafter.

But how shall we teach? We reply, *thoroughly*. From the time the pupil begins to climb the columns of Addition, unto the extraction of the Roots, everything that is attempted should be thoroughly accomplished. This does not imply, however, that everything is to be attempted. Many things are true which are not necessarily to be learned. If one were perfectly to acquire everything that is connected with and suggested by the simplest processes of Arithmetic, we should not graduate in the fundamental rules in a much longer time than was spent in the siege of Troy. Some teachers have much information to communicate, many properties of numbers, many modes of proving division, of explaining multiplication of fractions, and the like; and seem to think that inducting pupils into all these particulars is necessarily implied in *thoroughness*. But such is not our faith; if one knew of forty ways of abbreviating or performing simple subtraction, and should lecture his pupils without cessation for a week on that subject, he would not in our opinion be so *thorough* as if he taught them *one* method and made them so clearly understand it by much practice, that they never could be at fault in the use of it. One thing well learned is *worth a hundred* things poorly learned.

Our sentiment is, that it is better to teach a few modes of *accomplishing* given results, (*one* mode is generally better,)

and then compel pupils to understand that like a familiar tale. There is no little folly practised nowadays of this kind; pupils are made to understand things by "the hearing of the ear," and then they are copiously questioned, and if they appear to be convinced of the veracity of the teacher by making a sign for *yes* and *no* at the right points, they are admitted to farther progress. There is nothing so deceptive. The tricks of ignorance to hide itself are endless. The *only way* to ascertain whether or not a pupil understands a matter, is to let him *say it* or *do it*. Is he greatly shocked at the insinuation that he does not understand Simple Addition? Confront him with the task. So long as his problems consist of digits two layers deep, he may give evidence of good training; but give him a column of figures as tall and populous as a leger, forty digits high, and let him try his speed and accuracy with a regular accountant; or in other words, let him do just what he will need to do in his future business; and how many of the little boys of Massachusets, whom their teachers permitted to see the very end of the "roots" last winter, could climb to the top without stumbling? We presume not many.

This will give you, fellow teachers, an idea of what every boy should be able to do; that is, he should be qualified to perform rapidly and accurately every process in which you have professed to instruct him, and be able to give the reason of every step that he takes, from beginning to end. Such training will require much determination and force on the part of the teacher, and much repetition and an almost endless passing to and fro by the pupil, over every step of the difficult process, unaided by the instructor, yet under his watchful eye. When a small amount of progress has been made it should be reviewed again and again. And in these reviews it will be found very profitable to request the pupil to furnish his own examples and then solve them unaided by prompting or question.

The result of our experience is, that books can be but little relied upon in teaching this subject; at least we know of no book we should be willing to follow implicitly, even through a single topic. Take, for instance, the subject of Fractions; certainly among the most important. We know of few books where it seems to stand forth in its true simplicity and order; it is much "chopped up" in most treatises. We think that the experienced teacher at least would do well to arrange the topics for himself, and we presume to say that few of even a little mathematical taste will attempt it without perceiving that they can somewhat improve upon most books. Having fixed upon what topics you will consider, and in what order, have your classes follow *that order*, making use of the book only so far as *it will aid you; perhaps* for the problems; perhaps also for the

explanation, unless you can devise better; but not for the "rule"; the pupil can better make his own rule. Arithmetics would be greatly improved, if they had fewer and less artificial rules. The rule was designed to be merely an *expression* of the reason; the pupil soon magnifies it into *the* reason itself; as the crucifix and image were designed to be merely *aids* to worship; but the ignorant Catholic, by a wicked perversion, soon makes them the *objects* of worship.

We in our school-room have such a system of topics extending through such portions of the subject of Arithmetic as we choose to consider. It coincides with our text-book about as often as the grade of a modern railroad coincides with the original surface of the earth. It digs down what is too high, and about as often fills up what is too low. At whatever place pupils commence, we expect that they will pursue this order. Hence they become familiar with it, and can often repeat it, though we care little about that. This re-arrangement will enable one to reduce a great number of "dislocations" in Arithmetic, and bring topics that are akin to each other back into the same neighborhood from their long wanderings. For instance, Insurance and Commission, and Brokerage and Worth of Stock, and many more processes evidently come under the head of Percentage, and should be treated of there. But they are scattered about most modern treatises on no discoverable principle. They seem like dislocated strata, and wandering bowlders of rock, after some mundane catastrophe. Issue a writ of "*habeas corpus*" for Brokerage and Profit and Loss, and restore them to their mourning relatives. Send out an "exploring expedition" for Present Worth, and when found, drift it back again to its anchorage in Interest, under the process for "finding the principal, when time, rate per cent. and amount are given," where it belongs.

When Sophocles, the Greek poet, was accused of madness, he read to the judges one of his tragedies to prove his sanity, and was acquitted. We do not think that it would avail much for the authors of most modern Arithmetics to read one of their books under like circumstances.

As to the mode of recitation we will add a remark. We wish pupils to have a definite lesson, and have that well prepared. It will consist usually of problems from the book, or of a review, which is frequently to be carried on with extemporaneous problems. We wish all to recite at each meeting if possible, but not in any discoverable order. We wish to have the record of the class before us. One pupil is called upon, and such and *such problem* assigned; we would have him take it to the blackboard and commence; if he fails or falters, we would not have *him consume* longer time, but be seated; so if a pupil is

ready, and everything is prompt, we would stop him when in full progress, and call upon another in a different part of the class to take his place, and proceed from the point where he ceased; and so on. Perhaps a half dozen pupils may thus participate in the labor of performing one problem, all called up unexpectedly and thus kept on the alert; each one giving, perhaps, as satisfactory assurance of his state of preparation, as if they individually had dragged their slow length through a whole problem. We expect in this way to know respecting the lesson of each one, and to have each one *marked* accordingly. When this is done our principal work is done for that session. If the marks average too low at the end of the week or two weeks, individuals so designated must accelerate their speed or be sent down to a lower class till they find their level. If any part of the recitation goes wrong, a gentle rapping upon the desk should generally be sufficient to recall the wanderer; if the pupil corrects his mistake readily, it should detract little from the record of his recitation; "to err is human;" but if he cannot recover, another should be called up.

Then as to the mode of preparation for the succeeding recitation, we will venture a word; not a little will depend on that. Perhaps we may assign an additional topic for the morrow, as, for instance, "to divide one fraction by another," in such case we would by all means step to the board ourselves and demonstrate to the class that process by means of an example, and repeat the difficult parts of the work again and again, giving the rule at the close; so none shall use that common excuse of ignorance that they never saw it done! We would for a portion of the next exercise, name a number of original examples, illustrating the subject of the next lesson, as also previous rules. Constant repetition in this way is the life of thorough teaching. It will be well if the teacher has a fund of examples for this use, not accessible to the class; but if not, it will not be difficult to name them extemporaneously. Nor will it be difficult to determine whether they are correctly wrought. If they are actually performed in recitation, it will of course appear. If not, the concurrence of even two individuals, who have had no collusion, will render the correctness of an answer very certain; they may agree in the truth, but probably will not in an error. We much prefer problems proposed to a class in this way, as there are no answers to guide the pupil; they savor much more of the business of future life than any printed questions can.

We have said nothing of Mental Arithmetic. We do not forget it. They are truly fortunate who have been well trained in it, and the teacher is truly fortunate, whose pupils thus bear the *impress of a master's* hand. We feel a great partiality for *Warren Colburn and his* little book. We know not what his

successors and imitators have done, but that little treatise seems to hold on its way with increasing claims to our respect, like King James's version of the Scriptures, "appointed to be read in all the churches." The venerated author should have a monument; all New England should "give bonds" in marble and brass, that he be not soon forgotten. It is said that at the base of Monument Mountain in Berkshire, consecrated by the muse of Bryant, is a pile of stones, fancied to be the memorial of some copper-colored maiden of the forest who for very love died on that spot. The tradition is that it was raised in this way: every Indian that passed, threw a stone on to the pile. If every child in New England who has been benefited by the Mental Arithmetic we speak of, were thus to throw a stone, though no larger than a pebble, Mr. Colburn would soon have a monument, only smaller than Monument Mountain itself.

We do not know that we are indebted solely to this Arithmetic for the mode of solving problems by Anlaysis; yet in our younger days we knew of no such mode. Problems in Proportion were only solved by proportion; in Compound Proportion, by compound proportion; in Partnership, by the rule; "As the whole stock is to each man's share of the stock, so is the whole gain to each man's share of the gain;" and so with other processes. But, thanks to the progress of improvement, we now know of a better way.

Many problems are more easily solved by Analysis than by the "Rule." For instance, in Proportion or Compound Proportion, how much easier to obtain the answer by the method we speak of, than to invoke the aid of a "statement," as we were formerly taught. In many portions of Arithmetic, the method adopted in almost any treatise, is the method by Analysis; none simpler can well be devised; as in many processes in Fractions, in Decimals and Interest. But where such is not the case, as in the Proportions and Partnership, the pupil should be made *first* to solve every example by the Analytical mode, and then in the common way. He will thus pay homage to the truth, after that to the device of book-makers. Problems in Compound Proportion should be wrought by Analysis, then by Simple Proportion, and lastly by Compound Proportion. If pupils are taught to perceive the difference between Simple and Compound Proportion, and convert problems in Simple into Compound by annexing conditions, and then solve them in the several ways we have spoken of, Compound Proportion will be found to be a portion of Arithmetic, than which for discipline none better can be found.

We have extended these remarks to an unexpected length. *In asking* you, dear teacher, your mode of teaching Arithmetic, *we have* unintentionally fallen into the egotism of telling you our

own. We regard the subject an exceedingly important one, perhaps inferior to none. If we have impressed the idea of its importance more deeply upon any mind, we shall feel satisfied. We would here and everywhere seek to convey the idea that in teaching the mathematics, and especially Arithmetic, there will be need of all our energy and patience. We have the innate sluggishness of the pupil to overcome; we have to struggle with the force of long established and vicious habits; the most difficult part of education is to *unlearn* what has been learned wrong. What we would accomplish, cannot be accomplished at once. We must not expect to get through the book in one term, or two; what the pupils do not understand to-day let them consider to-morrow; on the next day let it "pass to a third reading." We must wear the channels of thought deep, and impress our pupils with the thought that their progress does not depend on how *much* they learn, but how *well* they learn.

Resident Editors' Table.

GEORGE ALLEN, Jr., ... *Boston*, } Resident Editors. { ELBRIDGE SMITH, *Cambridge*.
C. J. CAPEN, ... *Dedham*, } { E. S. STEARNS, *W. Newton*.

We copy, with pleasure, from the Springfield Daily Republican, the following notice of a very valuable pamphlet, reassuring our readers of what we have before stated, that the lecture referred to *should be read by every teacher*. It may be found in the volume of Transactions lately published by the Massachusetts Teachers' Association. This, with the other able lectures in the volume, makes a book which will prove highly acceptable and useful to the teacher. It may be obtained of the publisher of "The Massachusetts Teacher," 16 Devonshire Street.

A Lecture on School Government. By Ariel Parish, Principal of the High School, Springfield. Boston: Press of George Coolidge, and sold at all the Springfield book stores.

This essay, on a most important subject, was delivered at Worcester, in 1846, at the second annual meeting of the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association. Our only wonder, in looking over this admirable document, arises from the fact that it has slept for nine years unused. It briefly covers the whole ground of school government, and, from beginning to end, the writer gives evidence that the lesson he inculcates was learned by him in the school of experience — that he has no hobbies to ride, and no preëstablished theories to support. The book is keen-sighted, judicious, and practical, and we commend its pages.

John A. Goodwin, Esq., formerly of Westerly, R. I., and *lately editor of the* Lawrence Courier, has been elected Superintendent of Schools in Lawrence.

WESTBORO' REFORM SCHOOL. Mr. Talcott, late Superintendent of the Reform School at Providence, has assumed the duties of the office of Superintendent of the Reform School at Westboro', in place of Mr. Lincoln resigned.

JONATHAN TENNEY, ESQ., has resigned his place as Principal of Pittsfield High School, where his salary was $1000 per annum, and accepted the same office, with the same salary, in the High School in the city of MANCHESTER, N. H. A valuable gold-headed cane and a fine set of "Webster's Works," in 6 vols., 8vo, are among the pleasing testimonials of affection and esteem which he takes with him as presents from his pupils in Berkshire.

Mr. T. has been a Teacher in this State about four years; and returns to New Hampshire, where he had previously taught five years, in obedience to a sense of duty to his many strong personal and educational friends in that State, who have been for some time soliciting him to do so.

NORFOLK CO. TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

THE next Semiannual Meeting of the Norfolk County Teachers' Association will be held at Chemung Hall, Stoughton, on Thursday and Friday, the 9th and 10th of June.

Lectures will be delivered by Rev. Nathaniel Hall, of Dorchester, and by Mr. Slafter, Principal of the High School in Dedham, and Mr. Rolfe, Principal of the High School, Dorchester.

A full attendance of the friends of education is earnestly solicited.

THE PLYMOUTH CO. TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

WILL hold its Seventh Semiannual Meeting in Loring Hall, at Hingham, on Friday and Saturday, the 10th and 11th of June current.

Lectures will be delivered by Gideon F. Thayer, Esq., of Boston, Rev. J. P. Terry, of South Weywouth, and Rev. Augustus R. Pope, of Somerville. Hon. Horace Mann is expected to be present. The time between lectures will be occupied in discussion.

A. G. BOYDEN, *Secretary pro tem.*

A Teachers' Institute will be held at Nantucket, August 1st—6th, 1853.

THE

MASSACHUSETTS TEACHER.

Vol. VI. No. 7.] CHARLES HAMMOND, Editor of this Number. [July, 1853.

DR. LATHAM'S WORKS ON THE GRAMMAR AND LITERATURE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

The labors of Dr. Latham in illustrating the Grammar and History of the English language, are well known to the scholars of Great Britain. His elementary treatises, prepared for schools of different grades, have given him a wider popular celebrity in England than in the United States; still his Elementary English Grammar, reprinted in this country, and the more recent republication of his Hand-book of the English Language, for the use of the Universities and higher classes of schools, have caused the name of Dr. Latham to be known to American teachers. We are persuaded, however, that his various treatises are not, as yet, in this country, in the hands of that class of teachers and scholars for whose benefit they have been prepared.

We have thought it worth while, therefore, to direct the attention of the readers of the Teacher, to such facts as we have been able to gain respecting the author and the character of the works he has published on the Philology of the English language.

The earliest of his published works, is an Inaugural Lecture delivered at the induction of the author as Professor of the English Language in the London University. This took place October 14th, 1839. In this lecture he takes the ground, that "the English Language furnishes a sufficient disciplinal study in Grammar and Etymology irrespective of the fact of its being the native language of Englishmen." To those who are disposed to discard the use of Latin and Greek as disciplinal studies, we would commend the arguments in favor of a thorough *study of English, and those* works he has written to show the

comprehensiveness of the subject, as he understands it. We are not satisfied with the conclusion to which we fear he would lead many of his readers, that classical studies might be dispensed with, as a means of introducing the learner immediately and readily to a knowledge of universal Grammar; at the same time he has shown that such an analysis of all the forms and historical relations of our vernacular tongue, would be a task of hardly less difficulty than that now imposed on those who follow those methods so long pursued in all the best English and European schools.

Dr. Latham says, "Our native language is the best instrument in disciplinal study, simply because it is *our* native language." The reason of this is, that before the system of any language can be profitably studied, we must acquire a certain quantity of its details. In the attempt to obtain the principles of General or Universal Grammar from the study of a foreign language, the "theory is swamped by the practice," and in the attempt to do two things at once, one is done badly.

The merits of our native language as a disciplinal study, depend, in the opinion of Dr. Latham, "on the chronological extent" of the language embraced or used for this purpose. "There are two stages in Languages through which all sooner or later make their way — some sooner than others. The Latin may serve as an illustration. In the time of Augustus, it expressed the relations of Time and Place, its cases and tenses, by Inflection. In the time of Dante there was little inflection, but an abundance of auxiliary verbs and prepositions. In all Languages the inflectional stage comes first. There are languages that remain for an indefinite time in their earlier stage. Others again there are, with which we never come in contact till they have proceeded to their later stage. But languages of this latter kind, are of subordinate value to the Etymologist. He values most those seen in the two stages, so that he may watch the breaking up of one, the constitution of the other, and the transition intermediate to the two states."

"Our own language (the Anglo Saxon being borne in mind) comes under the conditions that constitute a good and sufficient language for disciplinal study in Etymology. It can be studied in two stages. When we come to the time of the Conquest we must acquire a new language. The breaking-up of the Latin is not more a study by itself, than is the study of the breaking-up of the Gothic. For in this stock of Tongues, not only did the Saxon pass into the English, but the Mæso-Gothic, Scandinavian and the Frisian, each gave origin to some new Tongue. Considering not the English only, but the whole range of allied Languages forming the Gothic stock, we have a magazine of processes and principles, which not only equals the Classical stock,

but exceeds even the Greek branch of it. Let the Greek and Latin be learned for their own sake; and by those who have the privilege to appreciate them. One might think that the works of Homer and Demosthenes, of Lucretius, Cicero, and Cæsar, were a sufficient reason for turning with diurnal and nocturnal hands the copies that exhibit them. But let us not be told that it is necessary to study the Latin or Greek Accidence for the sake of learning Universal Grammar." Whatever may be thought of the soundness of the views of Dr. Latham we cannot but admire the enthusiasm of the man in entering upon a course of studies in which he had few associates and almost no predecessors among his own countrymen at the outset of his own career as a Professor of English Philology. He says in the preface to the second edition of his great work on the English Language, "In 1840, so little had been done by Englishmen for the English language, that in acknowledging my great obligations to foreign scholars, I was only able to speak of what *might be done* by my own countrymen. Since then, however, there has been a good beginning of what is likely to be done well. My references to the works of Messrs. Kemble Garnet and Guest, show that my authorities are *now* as much English as German. And this is likely to be the case. The details of syntax, the illustrations drawn from our provincial dialects, the minute history of individual words, and the whole system of articulate sounds can, for the English, only be done safely by an Englishman; or, to speak more generally, can, for any language, only be dealt with properly by the grammarian *whose mother tongue is that language.*"

Dr. Latham admits that there are not wanting among the older works of English authors, some valuable contributions to what he terms "Gothic philology." But he regards them as forerunners of a brighter day, as suggesting general methods of study, rather than making explorations themselves in the vast field of learning which was to them as yet untraversed. "I should be sorry to speak as if, beyond the writers of what may be called the modern school of philology, there was nothing for the English grammarian both to read and to study. The fragments of Ben Jonson's English Grammar are worth the entireties of many later writers. The work of Wallis is eminently logical and precise. *The voice of a mere ruler of rules is a sound to flee from;* but the voice of a truly powerful understanding is a thing to be heard on all matters. It is this which gives to Cobbett and Priestly, to Horne Tooke as a subtle etymologist, and to Johnson as a practical lexicographer, a value in literary history which they never can have in grammar. It converts unwholesome doctrines into a fertile discipline of thought."

It is a matter of some surprise to us that no mention is made

of at least one eminent English philologist on this side the Atlantic. The fruits of the ripe scholarship of Dr. Webster in all the varied learning that was needed to write the best dictionary of the English tongue, had been nearly all gathered before the accession of Dr. Latham to his professorship, and before he had published any of his valuable works on the same subjects which had been well nigh exhausted by the great American lexicographer. The Herculean task of accomplishing what Dr. Webster undertook is not comprehended by those who are unacquainted with all that he did. We wish that his "*Synopsis of the principal words in twenty languages arranged in classes under their primary elements or letters*," might at length be published. It was the result of the hard toil of ten years of study, performed by a master mind in the exercise of its best powers. The scholars of Europe may not be aware of the merit due to the original researches, and successful and untiring industry of the American philologist, but they will always, whether consciously or not, be indebted to his labors in the department of English Literature. They would welcome as a rich addition to the stores of English and Anglo-Saxon philology, this unpublished work of Dr. Webster.

The work of which Dr. Latham speaks in the highest praise is the *Deutsche Grammatik* of Grimm, which he says is the work, not of an age, nor of a century, but, like the great history of Thucydides, a κτῆμα εἰς ἀεί.

It is the magazine from whence all draw their facts and illustrations. Still, Grimm has not exhausted any part of his great subject except that which pertains to the proper German. His exhibition of the grammar of other kindred tongues is capable of improvement.

The first edition of Dr. Latham's most extensive work, on "the English Language," was published in 1841. The last (third) edition was issued in 1850, and is so much enlarged as to be almost a new treatise. The aim of the author seems to have been to write a complete treatise on all that pertains to the history of the forms of the English language, and thus to show the indebtedness of our noble tongue to all the "languages, tongues, and people,"—who have each in the progress and revolutions of the ages contributed their part to make our vernacular speech what we now find it to be. Of course the general ethnological relations of the language form a very considerable and a very important part of the work to the general scholar. He goes back to the earliest records of the Anglican and Saxon races long before any thing that is properly English became *British*. This leads him to treat of the different immigrations of *various* Germanic tribes into the British Islands, and of the *relations* of the populations to each other, which coming from

localities remote from each other in the Father-land, mixed and became homogeneous in the first periods of veritable British history.

After giving an account of the dialects of the Saxon area, with the extent and frontiers of that area, and also of what is called the Old-Saxon, Dr. Latham proceeds to treat of the affinities of the English with the languages of Germany and Scandinavia. In this connection he gives the philological significations of the terms *German*, *Dutch*, *Teutonic*, *Anglo-Saxon*, and the *Icelandic* or *Old Norse*, which have a different meaning and extent than when used as civil or political designations. Thus he says, that the "present term *Icelandic* is given to the language of Iceland, not because Iceland *was* the country that *produced*, but because it *is* the country that has *preserved* it." It was the language of the *Norse* or Norwegians who colonized that remote Island, and have retained till now the early language of the mother country.

In the second part of his work, Dr. Latham proceeds to give a minute analysis of all the historical and logical elements of the English language, in which he shows what is due to Northern nations of Europe, and what to the classical stock, and what are the points of difference between the English and Low-land Scotch dialects.

In the proper history of the language, as to its external relations, and in respect to the origin of its words and forms, Dr. Latham has devoted nearly one fourth of his entire work. We venture to say that nowhere else will the reader find the subject more fully or more satisfactorily treated.

In the third part of his work Dr. Latham treats of that which with most other writers on English Grammar is, "the beginning" of the subject, viz., *Sounds*, *Letters*, *Pronunciation*, *and Spelling*. Whatever pertains to the nature of articulate sounds and the modes of representing them and their combinations, whatever belongs to the Euphony and transposition of letters, to Quantity and Accent, to the principles of Orthoëpy, and the general principles of Orthography, is here exhibited, together with a historical sketch of the English Alphabet. Those who would be glad to see the so-called reform of "Phonetics" introduced, would do well to study the processes by which our language is made to exhibit so many departures from the conditions of a perfect orthography. They will derive some good lessons from Dr. Latham's method of treating this and all other topics by a process which is historical as well as logical. Throughout all his work, the strictly grammatical portions not excepted, this mixed method is employed. He aims to show the way *in which words and inflections have been used*, not less than *to show by the logical method* how they OUGHT TO BE USED.

Indeed the *à priori* method of argument is deemed by our author as unreliable in philological discussions. It is rather on historical investigation "that the whole induction of modern philology rests."

"There is a limit in logical regularity which language is perpetually overstepping; just as there is a logical limit which the reasoning of common life is perpetually overstepping, and just as there is a physiological limit which the average health of men may depart from. This limit is investigated by the historical method; which shows the amount of latitude in which language may indulge, and yet maintain its great essential of intelligibility. Nay, more, it can show that it sometimes transgresses the limit in so remarkable a manner, as to induce writers to talk about *the corruption of a language, or the pathology of a language.* Yet it is very doubtful whether all languages, in all their stages, are not equally intelligible, and, consequently, equally what they ought to be, viz., *mediums of intercourse between man and man;* whilst, in respect to their growth, it is almost certain that so far from exhibiting signs of dissolution, they are, on the contrary, like the Tithonus of mythology, the Strulbrugs of Laputa, or such monsters as Frankenstein, very liable to the causes of death, but utterly unable to die. Hence in language, *whatever is, is right;* a fact, which taken by itself, gives great value to the historical method of inquiry, and leaves little to *à priori* considerations of logic."

We wish we could copy entire, Dr. Latham's history of the English Alphabet, which he shows to be, not English or Romanic in reality, but in all its essential features the same with the Greek and Hebrew. The forms of the letters since the first invention of writing, the greatest of all arts the wit of man ever devised, have indeed changed. A few new symbols have in the progress of ages been added by one nation or dropped by another; but as to the nature of the symbols of writing, their signification, the order of alphabetical arrangement, and even in respect to the names used for the symbols, there is a real and wonderful resemblance between the alphabets of the modern nations and the alphabet of the Hebrew language, which some believe to have been given to the Jews by God himself, and to have been thus the parent alphabet of at least all the Semitic and Occidental languages.

In the department of Etymology, the method pursued by Dr. Latham will be regarded by all those who read his extended discussions on that subject as widely different from what we find in other works hitherto written. He has realized Dr. Johnson's *definition* of the term Etymology in giving us first, the "descent of a word from its original, the deduction of formations from the *radical* word, and the analysis of compounds into primitives;"

and secondly, "the part of grammar which delivers the inflections of nouns and verbs."

In the last of the two departments of etymology just mentioned, Dr. Latham has not been satisfied with simply giving us the forms and inflections of words as we actually find them in our language as now used, but he has also given the history of all those forms and inflections, thus furnishing us the reason of the rules of present usage, evidently considering that in most cases the history of the forms of human speech is the best philosophy of language. From this stand-point, and with a knowledge of the classical and Gothic languages at his command, he proceeds to unfold in a manner most interesting to the scholar, the doctrine of Genders and Cases, all the peculiarities of the English Pronoun, the forms of Comparison, and explaining every thing which seems anomalous, with especial care. But it is in his discussion of the Verb that we meet with views most widely diverse from those generally received. His theory of strong and weak tenses, strong and weak conjugations, and strong and weak verbs, is adopted from the German, a distinction which has not been recognized before by any English author of reputation.

The ground of this distinction will appear from his own words.

"In the English language the tense corresponding with the Greek aorist and the Latin forms like *vixi*, is formed after two modes; 1. as in *fell*, *sang*, and *took*, from *fall*, *sing* and *take*, by changing the vowel of the present; 2. as in *moved* and *wept*, from *move* and *weep*, by the addition of *d* or *t*; the *d* or *t* not being found in the original word, but being a fresh element added to it. In forms, on the contrary, like *sang* and *fell*, no addition being made, no new element appears. The vowel indeed is changed, but nothing is added. Verbs, then, of the first sort, may be said to form their praeterites out of themselves, whilst verbs of the second sort require something from without. To speak in a metaphor, words like *sang* and *fell* are comparatively independent. Be this as it may, the German grammarians call the tenses formed by a change of vowel the strong tenses, the strong verbs, the strong conjugations or the strong order; and those formed by the addition of *d* or *t*, the weak tenses, the weak verb, the weak conjugations or the weak order. *Bound*, *spoke*, *gave*, *lay* &c., are strong; *moved*, *favored*, *instructed* &c. are weak."

This division of verbs into strong and weak is proved by Dr. Latham in his Chapter on Conjugation to be a natural division, and the strong verbs, commonly called irregular verbs, he arranges *in no less than* thirteen classes according to the formation *of their present* and praeterite tenses. On the other hand, he

arranges the verbs of the weak conjugation into three classes. In the *first* there is the simple addition of *d*, *t* or *ed*, as *serve served*, *cry cried*. To this class belong the greater part of the weak verbs and all verbs of foreign origin. In the *second class*, besides the addition of *t* or *d*, the vowel is *shortened*. It also contains those words which end in *d* or *t* and at the same time have a short vowel in the praeterite. Such as *cost cut* &c., and *bend send* &c. where the praeterite is formed from the present by changing *d* into *t* as *bent rent* &c. In this class we sometimes find *t* where *d* is expected; the forms being *left* and *dealt* instead of *leaved* and *dealed*. In the third class of weak verbs, the vowel is *changed* in the praeterite; while *t* or *d* is appended to the root. Thus we have *tell told*, *sell sold*, *will would*, *shall should*. To this class belong the remarkable praeterites of the verbs *seek*, *catch*, *teach*, *bring* and *buy*—viz. *sought*, *caught*, *taught*, *brought* and *bought*. In all these words the final consonant is either *g* or *k*, or else a sound allied to these mutes. When the tendency of these sounds is to become *h* and *y*, as well as to undergo farther changes, remember the forms under consideration cease to seem anomalous. Even the verb *work* is no longer to be considered an anomalous or irregular verb, but is ranged as a weak verb of the first class, forming its praeterite *wrought* by the addition of *t* to the root, or the present tense *work*. By transposition or metathesis, so common in Greek words, *work* becomes *wrok*; the root vowel is then lengthened, the final consonant *k* is changed to its cognate palatal mute *g*; while *h* indicates the aspiration which necessarily attends the combination of a guttural and lingual mute in a final syllable.

And it detracts nothing from this view to say, that in such words as *wrought*, *caught*, and others of like form, many of the letters which have passed through these euphonic changes, have now become silent or have no longer any sound at all. If they have no phonetic power in their present use they are not without great value as mementoes of their own history. Once without doubt they were all articulated with entire distinctness. To the modern German these grotesque orthographical combinations present no difficulty. He can pronounce them with ease, giving to each element its place and power with entire precision; for in his language, the parent of so much of our own, many similar combinations are yet retained.

It will at once be seen, that by these processes the definition of the term *irregular*, as applied to verbs and conjugations of verbs, must be very much narrowed down. Grammarians have included a multitude of verbs in the irregular list, because they *were ignorant* of etymological processes.

"*To increase* the amount of irregularities," says Dr. Latham, "*is the last* art that the philosophic grammarian is ambitious of

acquiring. True etymology reduces irregularity by making rules of grammar not exclusive but general. The *quantum* of irregularity is in inverse proportion to the generality of our rules. In language itself there is no irregularity. The word itself is only another name for our ignorance of the processes that change words. The principle that I recognize for myself is to consider no word irregular unless it can be proved to be so."

In the department of syntax the course pursued by Dr. Latham is widely different from that adopted by his predecessors. His method is based upon a theory of syntax which seems to be peculiarly his own, and which is given in his chapter "on Syntax in general."

He begins by saying, that most grammarians have "included much under the head of syntax which should be omitted altogether or else be better studied under another name." Thus he would exclude all those analytic processes in reducing a sentence to its elements, and in showing what those elements are, also the distinction between simplex and complex terms, as all belonging to the department of Logic. Logic treats of the nature and structure of propositions, with a view to express thought. Syntax has respect only to the proper arangement of words with respect to each other, requiring only that the sentence be idiomatic English.

Neither is it the province of Syntax to show the difference in force of expression between one construction and another, as, for instance, between, *Great is Diana of the Ephesians*, and *Diana of the Ephesians is great.* The effect of inverting the natural order of subject and predicate is a point for the Rhetorician to consider.

Dr. Latham proceeds to unfold the proper objects of Syntax by his answer to the following question. "If the history of the forms of speech be one thing, and the history of idioms another, if this question be a part of Logic, and that question a part of Rhetoric, and if such truly grammatical facts as government and concord are as matters of common sense to be left uninvestigated and unexplained, what remains as syntax?"

"This question is answered by the following distinction. There are two sorts of syntax—the one theoretical, scientific and pure: the other practical, historical and mixed. The first consists in the analysis and proof of those rules which common practice applies without investigation, and common sense appreciates in a rough and gross manner, from an appreciation of the results. This is the syntax of government and concord—or of those points which find no place in this work, for the reason that *they are either too easy or too hard for it.* If they are explained scientifically, *they are matters of* close and minute reasoning; if exhibited *empirically, they* are mere rules for the memory. Besides,

ay are universal facts of languages in general, and not the articular facts of any one language. Like other universal cts, they can be expressed symbolically. That the verb (A) grees with its pronoun (B) is an immutable fact: or, we may n other words say that language can only fulfil its great primary object of intelligibility when A=B. This portion of grammar bears the same relation to the practice of language, that the investigation of the syllogism bears to the practice of reasoning.

"The second kind of syntax is that which relates to the practical, historical or mixed forms of language. It regards not human speech as it *ought to be*, but as we actually *find* it. If required to indicate the essentials of mixed syntax, I should say that they consisted in the explanation of combinations *apparently* ungrammatical: or that they ascertained the results of those causes which disturb the regularity of pure syntax: that they measured the extent of the deviation, and that they referred it to some principle of the human mind, so accounting for it."

We have not space to allow even a glance at a multitude of other topics found in this large octavo volume. We cannot stop to notice the subject of Prosody, a department of Grammar almost entirely neglected by American authors.

This work of Dr. Latham was never designed to be a text-book, but as a repository of facts belonging to the language, for the use of those who make text-books, and especially for all teachers who use text-books. The arrangement and style of the author are not therefore to be criticised by the same rules as those we would apply to a work intended for the use of schools. It has a higher aim than this; and to one who is disposed to study the Archæology of the language, it will be regarded as an invaluable help. For this purpose not the least valuable parts will be the selections of ancient British and Gothic literature given in the body of the work and in the Appendix.

Of the works published by Dr. Latham since 1841, besides his large work on the English language, the most important are his Elementary English Grammar and his Hand-book of the English Language, which are properly abridgments of his larger work. The first is however designed for primary schools, and the second, which is nearly twice as large, is designed for colleges and high schools. Both of these works have been republished in the United States. Besides these, there have been published three other treatises on English Grammar, one for Ladies' schools, one for Commercial schools, and a "History and Etymology of the English Language, for Classical schools." The general plan of all these publications is the same with that *of the Elementary* Grammar. Dr. Latham has also published *a little tract*, with the title, "First outlines of Logic applied to Grammar and Etymology."

In the department of logical grammar Dr. Latham is deficient. He has clearly suggested the method of logical analysis, but in the development of this subject, he is greatly inferior to our own countryman, Prof. Greene, of Brown University, whose valuable publications on the application of Logic to the analysis of sentences, leave nothing farther in that department to be desired.

It has not been our purpose in this essay to commend the general views of Dr. Latham on the subjects of which he has so largely treated. Our sole aim has been to awaken an interest in the study of English philology, by directing teachers and students to the works of one who has been long and enthusiastically engaged in the study of our own language. With American teachers, there have been strong temptations to the "making of many books" on the subject of English Grammar. But though the authors are a legion, the authorities are few. We hope that if others shall be tempted still to delve in the same mine, that they will labor, not like Goold Brown to accumulate facts and authorities of little or no value, but to apply the methods of the German scholars, in their analysis of the classic languages, to our own noble tongue. Let some master mind do for the English language what Zumpt and Kühner and our own Crosby have done to illustrate the classical languages, and a better work would be written than has yet appeared. To accomplish this the contributions of our best scholars in the study of Anglo-Saxon and its kindred tongues will be made available to the public good. Dr. Latham regarded himself only as a pioneer. His works are valuable chiefly as repositories of facts and principles, and not because they have special attractions of style or lucid arrangement to recommend them. Whatever may be the opinion of critics as to the value of these treatises, we are sure the hearty enthusiasm and the generous sentiments of the author, will be appreciated, in the closing words of his Inaugural Lecture, already referred to, delivered when he was introduced to the professorship he has so well adorned. They reveal a fine ideal of a good teacher, in the aim he sought to reach at the outset of his career.

"There are two sorts of Lecturers; those that absolutely teach, and those that stimulate to learn; those that exhaust their subject, and those that indicate its bearings; those that infuse into their hearers their own ideas, and those that set them a-thinking for themselves. For my own part, it is, I confess, my aim and ambition to suceed in the latter, rather than in the former object. To carry such as hear me through a series of authors, or through a course of Languages in full detail, is evidently, even if it were desirable, an impossibility; but *it is not impossible* to direct their attention to the prominent *features of a particular* subject, and to instil into them the

ous necessity of putting forth their own natural powers in ependent manner, so as to read for themselves, and to judge emselves. Now as I would rather see a man's mind active capacious, and as I love self-reliance better than learning, e no more sanguine expectation, than that instead of exting my subject, I may move you to exhaust it for yourselves, sharpen criticism, may indicate original sources, and above suggest trains of honest, earnest, patient and persevering ection."

NEW ENGLAND NORMAL INSTITUTE,

LANCASTER, MASS.

THIS seminary was opened, as announced, on Monday, 9th May; and the dedication exercises took place on Tuesday 10th. The day was remarkably favorable for the purpose; the charming scenery of Lancaster, in the bright sunshine, seemed heightened beyond even its wonted beauty; and the noble aspect of the Institute edifice, with its cheerful and spacious hall, completed the external attractions of the occasion; while, within, the numerous assemblage of friends of education, from a distance as well as from the immediate vicinity, together with the instructors and students, evinced the interest taken in the design and prospects of the seminary.

The various exercises of the day were highly interesting. The Rev. Mr. Bartol offered the prayer of invocation, and read an appropriate passage of Scripture. The Rev. Mr. Packard offered the prayer of dedication, which was preceded and followed by the performance of sacred music, by a choir of students of the institute. The exercises of the forenoon closed with an address by Prof. Russell, the Director of the Institute, which, on account of his disability, from hoarseness, was read by his son, Mr. Francis T. Russell.

The hours of the afternoon were occupied by addresses from individuals friendly to the purposes of the new seminary, among whom were Mr. G. F. Thayer, of Boston, the Rev. Mr. Savage, of Bedford, N. H., Rev. Messrs. Packard, Bartol, and Whittemore, of Lancaster, Calvin Cutter, M. D., lecturer on physiology, and Mr. William J. Whitaker, principal of the department of design, in the Institute. Letters were also read from absent members of the Board of Visitors, expressing their interest in the occasion, and their cordial wishes for the prosperity of the *seminary.* An interesting communication was read from Prof. Agassiz, on the eve of his departure from Switzerland, in anticipating the corps of instruction in the Institute

In the evening, the audience was addressed, in a strain of eloquent remarks, by Mr. William Whittemore, lecturer on chemistry in the Institute, and by Mr. Tenney, lecturer in geology; after which followed a closing exercise in elocutionary recitation, by Mr. F. T. Russell, institute lecturer, and Mr. Arthur Sumner, adjunct instructor in that department.

The exercises of the day, by their peculiarly interesting character, rendered it, throughout, a rich season of intellectual festivity. The prospects of the Institute seem highly encouraging to its friends. The number of students in attendance, at the close of the second week, amounted to nearly eighty.

PLAN AND ARRANGEMENTS.

This establishment is designed as a professional school, for the training of teachers, of both sexes, for *private* as well as *public* schools, of every grade, from elementary seminaries to higher institutions. It is arranged as *a school of departments*, each under the care of a separate principal instructor and assistants. It thus becomes adapted to the circumstances of students who wish to advance their qualifications for teaching in *particular branches, only*, and to devote *a limited time* to these, exclusively. It is intended, also, to meet the case of individuals whose own education is comparatively complete, but who are desirous of acquiring *a practical knowlege of the art of teaching.* Persons who are not intending to devote themselves to the business of instruction, and who wish to pursue the study of particular subjects, may be admitted to the lectures and class-exercises on these, by special arrangement. Individuals who wish for private instruction, or separate lessons, in any branch, can be accommodated by personal arrangements with the instructors in the different departments.

CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION.

The Institute being designed for all stages of professional training, no standard of previous attainments is prescribed for entrance, with the exception of a certificate of good moral character, from a clergyman, a teacher, or a school-committee, without which testimonial individuals cannot be enrolled as members of the Institute. Candidates for admission must, unless in cases specially excepted, have attained the age of sixteen.

MODES OF INSTRUCTION AND FORMS OF EXERCISE.

These will, in general, correspond to the routine of a Teachers' Institute in permanent session, as exemplified in the daily exercises of the Merrimack Normal Institute, for several years under the charge of the Director. They will consist of—1. Lectures, *by the principals of* departments, on the various branches under

their charge; — 2. Oral and written recapitulations of these lectures, by the students; — 3. Lessons prescribed from text-books selected by the principals; — 4. Practical exercises in illustration of these lessons; — 5. Voluntary oral and written exercises, in application of principles involved in the course of instruction on given subjects; — 6. Daily opportunities of observing, and being examined on, methods of teaching, and modes of management, in the model schools connected with the Institute; — 7. In addition to these opportunities, students, when duly qualified, will enjoy the advantage of entering on the practice of assistants in the model schools.

EXAMINATIONS AND CERTIFICATES.

Examinations will take place at the close of each term, when certificates will be conferred, according to the following scale: — 1. Certificates of *attendance* during one or more terms; the statement being limited to the fact of attendance, merely; — 2. Certificates of *aquirements*, attested by the Board of Visitors and by the Principals of Departments, — in the branches on which candidates pass examination satisfactorily; — 3. Certificates of *competent qualification for teaching*, whether in primary, intermediate, or high schools, and academies. These last-mentioned testimonials will be conferred on individuals, who, in addition to passing satisfactory examination, as to acquirements, have been successfully employed, for one or more terms, as assistant teachers in one of the model schools connected with the Institute, and corresponding to the grade of school for which the candidate is an applicant.

TERMS AND TUITION-FEES.

The academic year of the Institute, will consist of *a summer and a winter term*, of twenty weeks each; — the former commencing, for the present year, on the second Monday of May, and the latter, on the Monday following Thanksgiving-week, in the State of Massachusetts, — unless otherwise announced, hereafter.

The cost of tuition, to individuals, will depend on the number of departments which they choose to enter. *Tickets of admission* * to the classes of the Institute, for *one term of twenty weeks*, will be rated as follows:

1. *The elementary mathematical*,— including arithmetic, algebra, and geometry, — with the addition of book-keeping, $5.00.
2. *The higher mathematical*, — iucluding trigonometry, sur-

* *Uniformly* payable in advance, previous to enrolment in any class, and *not liable* to deduction for deficient attendance.

veying, natural philosophy, and astronomy, — with the addition of geography, $5.00.

3. *The elocutionary,* — including reading, recitation, and declamation, $5.00.

4. *The grammatical and rhetorical,* — including sentential analysis, composition, the practice of premeditated and extemporaneous speaking, and the critical study of English literature, — with the addition of a course of history, $5.00.

5. *The classical,* — including the Latin language, $5.00, and the Greek language, $5.00.

The cost of tuition in the *modern languages*, will be $5.00 for each language. In *vocal* music, *drawing*, and *penmanship*, it will depend on the number of students in a class. The terms of instruction on the *piano-forte*, will be regulated by the previous attainments of the pupil. — Admission to the courses of lectures on physiology, zoölogy, botany, geology, chemistry, etc., will be by tickets, at a moderate cost for each, according to the number of the audience, which may consist of others as well as members of the Institute. The price of tickets will be announced at the time when a lecture is proposed. — All members of the Institute are admitted, without charge, to the Director's course of lectures addressed to practical teachers, on logic and intellectual philosophy, modes of education, and methods of instruction.

Terms of boarding. — During the first session of the Institute, students will board with families residing in the neighborhood, on terms ranging from two dollars a week, upward, according to accomodations.

ANECDOTE OF DR. PARR.—It is said that the celebrated Dr. Parr, while an instructor of youth, was rather a strict disciplinarian, and that in order the more effectually to enforce and impress his instructions, he made a pretty free use of the birch. On one occasion, in a public company, a petulant young fellow thought proper to address him aloud in the following terms: "Dr. Parr, have you given up yet that abominable habit of flogging?" At first Dr. Parr took no notice, nor pretended to hear him; but upon a repetition of the question, turning towards the young man with great dignity and sternness, he said, "Sir, discipline is necessary to form a soldier—discipline is necessary to form a scholar—it is also necessary to form a gentleman; and *the want of discipline*, Sir, has made you *what* you are."

CLASSICAL STUDIES.

A HAPPY influence is exerted by classical study because our mental and moral habits are intimately connected with our style of thinking and speaking. Thus our sense of rectitude is very much dependent on the accuracy of the language which we employ. Confusion in speech leads to confusion in morals. Perspicuity in diction is often the parent of clear mental and moral conceptions. Hence scarcely any thing is more important in the culture of the young, than exact attention to the nicer shades of thought; than the ability to discriminate in respect to all terms (those relating to moral subjects particularly) which are in general regarded as synonymous. One of the chief benefits of classical study goes to this very point. It is itself a process of accurate comparison. It is taking the valuation, as it were, of the whole stock of two most copious languages. Some of the principal authors use words with wonderful precision. Plato, for instance, defines with microscopic acuteness. His power of analysis was, perhaps, never equalled. His ear seemed to be so trained as to detect the slightest differences both in the sense and in the sound of words. This is one reason why no translation can do justice either to his poetic cadences or to his thoughts. No one can be familiar with such an author, and really perceive the fitness of his words and the truth of the distinctions which they imply, without becoming himself a more exact reasoner and a nicer judge of moral truth. Language when thus employed is not a dead thing. It reacts with quickening power on our minds and hearts. When we use words of definite import, our intellectual and moral judgments will become definite. A hazy dialect is the parent of a hazy style of thinking, if it is not of doubtful actions. The dishonest man, and the dishonest state, often allow themselves to be imposed upon by a loose mode of reasoning and a looser use of language. Here, then, may an argument not unimportant be drawn in favor of continued attention to those finished models of style and of thought which are found in the studies in question. They nourish a delicacy of perception, and the sentiments and feelings gradually gain that crystal clearness which belongs to the visible symbols.

Once more, it is to be feared, that a degenerating process has long been going on in our vernacular tongue. There is danger that it will become the dialect of conceits, of prettinesses, of dashing coxcombry, or of affected strength, and of extravagant metaphor. Preachers as well as writers appear to regard *convulsive* force as the only quality of a good style. They *seem to imagine* that the human heart is in all its moods to be *carried by* storm. Their aim is the production of immediate

practical effect. Hence there is a struggle for the boldest figures and the most passionate oratory. The same tendency is seen in the hall of legislation, and preëminently in much of our popular literature. Passion, overstatement, ridiculous conceits, the introduction of terms that have no citizenship in any language on earth, a disregard of grammar, an affected smartness, characterize to a very melancholy degree our recent literature. To be natural, is to be antiquated. To use correct English, is to plod. Hesitancy in respect to the adoption of some new-fangled word, is the sure sign of a purist. Such writers as Addison and Swift are not to be mentioned in the ears of our "enterprising" age. The man or woman who could be caught reading the Spectator would be looked upon as smitten with lunacy. In short, there is reason to fear, that our noble old tongue is changing into a dialect for traffickers, magazine writers and bedlamites.

One way by which this acknowledged evil may be stayed, is a return to such books as Milton, Dryden, and Cowper loved; to such as breathe their spirit into the best literature of England; to the old historians and poets, that were pondered over from youth to hoary years, by her noblest divines, philosophers, and statesmen. Eloquence, both secular and sacred, such as the English world has never listened to elsewhere, has flowed from minds that were imbued with classical learning.—*Prof. Bela B. Edwards.*

For the Massachusetts Teacher.

AN HOUR AT TWILIGHT.

It had been a warm, showery day in May, but the rain had ceased, and the setting sun was throwing his mantle of gold over the distant clouds and lighting up the green hills around, as I sat down by my chamber window and fell to musing upon the events of the days I had passed in teaching. I am but a school teacher, thought I, shut out in a great measure from the busy world, to deal only with children, and what availeth my poor endeavors even in this respect? Day after day I have toiled for the benefit of my pupils, each morning I have implored God's blessing upon me to enable me to discharge my duty towards them; then as I have entered my school-room, I have watched to see how I could best interest and profit; I have tried patiently and kindly to encourage them to learn; I have guarded as far as possible, their young hearts from the tempter's power; I have endeavored to direct their thoughts up to their Creator, and teach them *that unto him* we are accountable for every privilege we

enjoy; and then each evening I have asked God's blessing upon the duties of the day. But then, what availeth it all? I cannot be a faithful teacher, for I have often noted the averted eye when I was endeavoring to interest, the look of weariness when I was explaining a difficult point; and when I have wished for order, I have been pained by excessive confusion. No, no, it cannot be that I am accomplishing any good, even in my humble sphere; I have mistaken my calling; I do not understand the mysterious art of teaching. Thus I mused in sadness, until shadows were gathering around; and then years seemed to pass in a moment, and I had long since ceased to be a youthful teacher. But the scholars that I instructed through that first, sad term to me, where were they? Grown to be men and women; and many and important were the stations they occupied. There was one, standing in the sacred desk, holding in rapt silence the multitude, as he discoursed so touchingly of heaven and divine things; and yet he was the bright-eyed, mirthful boy, that used so often to tax my patience by his ill-timed glee. There was one who stood nobly in our nation's councils, to whom, in a great measure, the interests of the state were entrusted; yet he used to lay off the statesman, and sit by my side to talk long and familiarly of other days. He would call my attention back to the time when he was a dull, careless boy, regardless of study; and then he would say, that I had first encouraged him to prepare nobly, manfully, for life's stern duties; and while I persuaded tears would come to his eyes; and from that time he resolved that his influence should be known and felt, and he struggled on, until the goal was reached, the victory gained. There was another, a devoted missionary on foreign shores, who told me at parting, that my hand first touched the chord within her heart, whose tremulous vibrations ceased not until she consecrated herself to the work of missions. Then there was a meek-eyed, gentle one, who went early to her long home, who died with words of gratitude upon her lips, that I had taught her when a little child the way to heaven, and when she lay pale in death I turned away with a heart overflowing with thankfulness, that God had ever permitted me to be a teacher. But with this last, this angelic remembrance, the dream passed, for it was but a dream, and I sat still beside my window, and darkness was falling thick around me; but with the vision, my sorrows and my discouragements had vanished, and a "ministry of strength" was granted unto me. Ah, thought I, "proud heart, be still," thou art doing a noble work, and such *may* some time be thy happy privilege; at least, thou canst "sow beside all waters;" *and there* is One who can cause to spring up the seeds of truth. *So I went* forth again to the duties of my school with a light *and* happy heart, looking to the future for my reward, and trust-

ing in Him who hath said "In the morning sow thy seed, and in the evening withhold not thy hand, for thou knowest not which shall prosper, either this or that. F. H.

Elmira, May 14th, 1853.

THE HAMPDEN CO. TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The Hampden Co. Teachers' Association held its semi-annual meeting in the South Congregational Church, in Springfield, May 6th, 1853.

The meeting was convened at half past two o'clock P. M.:— called to order by W. W. Mitchell, Secretary of the Association; prayer was offered by Rev. Mr. Buckingham, of Springfield. After the reading of the annual report by the Secretary, and a few remarks from the Chair, congratulating the Association upon the full attendance, Mr. P. B. Strong, President of the Association, delivered a Lecture upon the "Influence of Teachers." The lecturer gave so just and full a view of the subject, that the audience deferred to discuss its merits with a single exception.

At four o'clock the question previously announced for discussion, was taken up, and Messrs. O. S. Senter and J. H. Thompson, of Springfield, Rev. Mr Clark, of Chicopee, and Mr. Tufts, of Monson, occupied the time in discussing the best methods of waking up mind and securing attention until "gray twilight" and a motion for tea; adjourned to half past seven.

At half past seven the meeting was called to order by the President, and Professor Haven, of Amherst College, was introduced, who gave a very logical, interesting and instructive Lecture upon the "Model Teacher."

An Original Ode by a member of the Springfield Bar, was read by the President and sung by the Choir.

Rev. Dr. Sturtevant, President of Illinois College, who happened to be present, was announced, and made some very effective and stirring remarks upon the prospects of educational interests in Illinois, and the need there is there of practical teachers from the East; he was followed by Professor Nash, of Amherst College, in some interesting remarks.

Mr. G. H. Loomis announced to the Association the deplorable accident at Norwalk, by which nearly half a hundred people, and among them two of our most useful physicians, Drs. J. M. Smith and J. H. Gray, met an untimely death, and moved an adjournment:—he was seconded by Mr. C. B. Barrows in some very impressive remarks; the motion was carried, and the *meeting adjourned.*

Saturday, May 7th.

The Association met at half past eight; called to order at half past nine, a fact worthy of note, since it was owing to the acts of those who are to teach punctuality; there being no lecture, though one was announced, the President proposed that the members should proceed to the discussion of the question announced, or others connected with the general interests of education, as each might prefer.

The discussion was commenced by G. H. Loomis, who made some statements of his observation and experience in Hampden County schoolhouses, which were too true if true at all, and "pity 't is, 't is somewhat true;" he also spoke of the want of interest in schools on the part of parents, and the social position of teachers as a body.

Professor Nash followed with some excellent remarks upon the importance of the Teachers knowing and appreciating the extent of his influence, and the necessity of a more complete education and a thorough mental and moral cultivation.

R. A. Chapman, Esq., of Springfield, was called to the floor by the President: he spoke very pertinently upon the growing estimation in which Teachers are held, and very justly upon their being regarded as "upper-servants," and showed very conclusively that if there is in all the relations of society, any such class of upper servants, it must be composed of Teachers, for the most important results are required of them. O. S. Senter followed in a general discussion of the classification question.

An Essay by a Female Teacher was presented and read by W. W. Mitchell, Secretary of the Association.

Mr. Rowe, of Westfield, moved for the appointment by the Board of Officers, of a Committee of three Ladies, to be Editresses of a paper or papers to be read at a future meeting of the Association; the motion was carried by an overwhelming majority.

A Chapter of Chronicles was presented and read by W. W. Mitchell; the author seemed to have the pen and pencil of a "ready writer," for the sayings and doings of the Hampden County Teachers' Association were set forth with much accuracy and brought down to the present time.

Messrs. Mitchell, Loomis and Rowe moved the following resolutions, which were adopted.

Resolved, That the thanks of this Association be presented to the citizens of Springfield for our cordial reception and entertainment.

To the South Congregational Society who have kindly furnished us the use of their church.

To the Western Rail Road Corporation for their liberality in furnishing free return tickets to the members of the Association.

To the Lecturers, who have favored us with their instructive and interesting productions.

To those Gentlemen who by their presence and aid in debate have assisted and cheered us.

Adjourned to meet at such time and place as the Board of Officers may determine.

L. SCOTT, *Recording Secretary.*

THE OPEN SENSE OF CHILDHOOD.

THAT "OPEN SENSE," as some have called it, which is found in childhood, which makes the world seem supernal, fire-edged, which feels it filled with mystery and force, and which realizes the contact of God and the Invisible — this must, so far as possible, *be carried on to maturity, and be made to penetrate all our progress*, in order to our perfectness. There is a principle here, which is often overlooked, but which ought never to be so; which every Educator, and every system of training, should intelligently recognize.

The season of young life has its special charm. This need not vanish, as the experience advances. It may be carried into the subsequent career, and the attainments and the powers of that be gilded with its clear morning light. We see this accomplished in the poets whom the world has recognized; and in them we accept it as an admirable element. We may see it in those whom nature has endowed with the poetic sensibility, or with the rarer and regal gift of imagination, but to whom she has denied the poetic utterance, who through the defect of that special mental sense which appreciates and suggests the musical cadence, or by the pressure of outward circumstances have been shut out from song and made doers, achievers; who have stirred men's hearts with their grand appealing thought, and have led the perilous van of reforms; or who have wrought into more tremendous expression the poems that were in them, amid the shock of charging armies, upon the arena of political revolution or in the secrets of Christian endurance. Jonathan Edwards had this, as his journal demonstrates. Augustine had it. Luther had it, "that granite mountain with fountains in it." These men carried youngness and freshness of soul with them, through all their career, as St. Christopher in the painting is seen bearing the young yet ruling Jesus across the swift and heady stream. Yet the child-nature was not in them set over against *the man's*. It rather melted into, pervaded and *suffused it; as the child's* beauty is merged in the man's earn-

estness in the pictures of John. It was an element of freedom and completeness to them. Napoleon, on the other hand, had little of this. His element was incessant and splendid action. He was not akin to nature in its simplicity. He could not have found a spirit within, responsive to orchards and placid streams; and the very ornaments of affection or enthusiasm which he wore, seemed rather the etchings upon a steel-blade, than the growths of a nature spontaneous and teeming. But Cromwell had this; and so had Lord Strafford, of whom one would not think it if he could help it, but of whom we are told that in his stormiest scenes of life, he was wont to take refreshment with children in the garden, and to be a child and boy among them.

In all truly graceful and bountiful natures we meet this element. The child stands near to nature, and its secrets. It is to him as if new-made; "the daily miracle of the morning," the glory and the dusk. He has faith in the Invisible. The earth and life are embosomed in a Presence, not seen, but *felt* and inly apprehended. The ideal is beneath everything. All occurrences are significant. The woods are populous still with fairies. Something sombre and portentous is in the darkness. The world is quick with mysterious forces. Its even and mighty pulses seem beating against his heart. There is a presence of the Eternal around and within all. The universe is vital; not a mill or a shop, but a vast scene of Life, progressive and ascending. Poetry is reality. Religion is authoritative. The symbols of the future are far-flashing facts, illuminating the present with their infinite radiations. Yet the spirit is mirthful and peaceful, full of humor, full of gladness, sunshiny and free.

To perpetuate, then, this freshness of thought and youthful grace, that it may imbue and adorn the knowledge and the energy of our practised manhood, is essential to the perfect development of the soul. We lose a part of our spiritual endowment, and therefore we come short of our perfect success, when we let this pass from us. The true education will establish and ennoble, instead of expelling it. * * * * To keep the freshness of soul that shall see this, to resist the hardening and deteriorating influences that play so swiftly back and forth in our driving civilization, and to retain, in no sentimental and dilettante way, but as an element of culture, of power, and of virtue, this inner youngness, so that nature shall woo us as a great, blessing mother, and stars shall rain bright influence on us, and we shall stand consciously amid the Invisible. This is true and noble progress. To lose no element of grace or force, *but ever* to erect a new beauty on the existing; to exalt the *dithyrambic* to the glorious lyric, to enlarge poetic insight and *faculty* till this rises to the Epic, to crown science in philosophy,

and to finish all attainment with the loveliness and the majesty of a noble art; this is the true method not only of national, but equally of individual civilization and culture. Education completes a man in securing this for him. Then the conscience is enthroned in supremacy within us, as being intrinsically our highest power; when the will is exalted by allegiance to it made free in the liberty of acquiescence with the Infinite; when the intellect is disciplined, invigorated and furnished, and yet the glow of its youth maintained; when a just affection toward our Author is enkindled, and all the powers are inspired by its impulse; when, in a word, every spiritual force for which our nature has aptitude and scope, has been brought to expression, and been disciplined by culture; then, the primary end of our being is attained. The soul is developed. Its life is unfolded.—*Rev. Richard S. Storrs, Jr.*

LECTURE OF MR. PARISH ON SCHOOL GOVERNMENT.

A GOOD work has been accomplished in re-publishing Mr. Parish's most excellent lecture on the management of the school-room. This lecture forms one of the series of the first volume of the "Transactions of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association," and we have always regarded it as one of the best lectures ever delivered before the association. For practical utility we know of no treatise on the same subject which surpasses it. That part of it which bears the title of "A Manual of School Duties for the use and benefit of the pupils of the Springfield High School" ought to be re-published in a tract form and put into the hands of every teacher in the United States. It is an invaluable vade mecum for teachers of all grades of schools, from the humblest primary to the high school and college. But our special object in thus alluding again to Mr. Parish's lecture is to suggest to the consideration of the teachers of Massachusetts, the formation of an *Educational Tract Society*, which shall have for its object the publication of such lectures as that of Mr Parish, and the excellent lecture of Mr. Bates on the character of Dr. Arnold, and other similar treatises. Mr. Parish tells us that a manuscript copy of his *manual* is always in his school-room, and accessible to his pupils. Would it not be a better plan still, to give to every pupil at the beginning of each term a neatly printed copy of that same manual? and if the experience of Mr. Parish has shown its benefits, why will not the *plan work equally well* in all the schools of the commonwealth?

Resident Editors' Table.

GEORGE ALLEN, Jr., ...*Boston*,
C. J. CAPEN, ...*Dedham*, } RESIDENT EDITORS. { ELBRIDGE SMITH, *Cambridge*.
E. S. STEARNS, *W. Newton*.

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SCHOOL COMMITTEE OF THE TOWN OF DANVERS, *together with the Report of the Superintendent of Schools.*

In July last, we referred to the appointment of Chas. Northend, Esq., of Salem, as Superintendent of Schools in Danvers. We hailed it as a new sign of the times, and expressed the hope that the example might be imitated in all the cities and large towns in the Commonwealth. This is a new feature in our educational system; and although it has for some years been in existence in the state of New York, and is highly popular and useful there, yet so firmly wedded are we, in New England, to old institutions, and so foolishly distrustful of what are too contemptuously termed innovations, that the appointment of a Superintendent of Schools is a rare thing with us. We fear that, unless the old incubus of a District school system be removed, and our people be aroused to a due sense of the importance of numerous improvements, as was intimated by the President of the Massachusetts Teachers', Association in his opening address at the last meeting, "*The West will lead us.*" The prediction was made under proper qualifications, yet we do not see how, under present circumstances, we are likely to be saved from the disgrace. The example which Boston, Danvers and Lawrence have set must be followed. In Boston, the plan has been eminently successful, and will prove the most useful and efficient as well as *economical* feature which that city has yet adopted for the well-being of her schools.

The School Committee of Danvers, in commenting upon the change in their town, say that

"Notwithstanding the period of time has been so brief, and that there are inconveniences and obstacles always attendant upon the first operation of a new system which impede its progress, but which experience obviates or removes, the Committee have seen enough to consider it demonstrated, that the change adopted by the town in the supervision of the schools was most judicious and wise, and one which will be more and more beneficial the longer it is continued."

As one of its good results, they say:

"*There* never has been a period in our school history, when so much *interest* was manifested in the subject of Education, and so much *anxiety felt* by parents, as has been exhibited in our midst during the

last nine months. The proof of this is conclusive, and it is this,—that the visits of parents and friends of the pupils to the schools in the different districts, and their attendance at examinations and exhibitions, have been more by fifty per cent. than ever before. And this result, the Committee believe, is attributable, not only to the personal exertions of the *present* Superintendent in this particular, but to the fair and legitimate workings of the system of supervision under which he acts."

The Report of Mr. Northend is a highly useful and able document, and conclusively proves that the people of Danvers have availed themselves of the services of one who to ability and skill has added indefatigable labor and research in the performance of his duties. We would cheerfully lay before our readers the whole of his report, so far as it relates to the general interests of Education; but, for want of space, we must content ourselves with presenting only a few extracts.

In reference to the manner in which his time has been occupied, Mr. Northend says:

"During the nine months of my official labors I have made upwards of two hundred and fifty visits to the schools, lectured nine times, in different sections of the town, on school duties, examined fourteen different candidates for teaching, aided in the examination of candidates for the High Schools, and attended to numerous incidental calls upon my time in reference to concerns of the schools. In addition to the above, I have devoted sixty-one entire half-days to the annual examinations of the summer and winter terms.

"In my several visits to the schools, and in my remarks at the closing examinations, I have endeavored to impress upon the young the great importance of good deportment and of correct moral feeling and action; to cause them to feel that the only true value of learning consists in the power it confers of doing good and blessing others."

The duties of the Superintendent of Schools are multifarious, and the good which he can accomplish is incalculable. He will discover defects, and suggest their remedies, and, if he be experienced, will observe peculiar excellence, encourage and perpetuate it. His coöperation with the teacher, and his kindly aid and advice will make his visits always acceptable, whilst his presence will be hailed by the pupils with delight, as during his occasional attendance he listens to their school exercises, or familiarly addresses them in relation to their duties, and their preparation and plans for the future.

The following judicious remarks in regard to the selection of teachers, are especially worthy of attention:

"The most efficient and successful teachers do not always make the earliest application for situations. Indeed some of the best teachers think it quite as well '*to be called*' as '*to call.*'

"*Recommendations* do not make teachers, though it might almost *seem that some teachers* made recommendations. These articles have

become exceedingly cheap, and will seldom pay the expense of transportation. I would give more for half an hour's interview with an applicant for a school, or for a visit of the same length to his school-room, than for a thousand recommendations."

There are few teachers who cannot from their own bitter experience, recognize the justice of the following, on the influence of parents:

"In how many cases are the teacher's plans, and wishes, and labors for the improvement of the children completely thwarted or crippled by the unwise doings and sayings of those for whose offspring he so anxiously toils! How many parents, by unkind and unjust observations, made in the presence of their children, in reference to the teacher's course, do all that can be done to destroy the confiding relation which should exist between an instructor and his pupils, and then decry the teacher, in unmeasured terms, for not accomplishing a work which their own efforts have rendered impossible of accomplishment!"

The propriety of sending children to the primary school at the early age of four years, is ably discussed, and the objections which are daily becoming more generally acknowledged, are forcibly presented. He closes the discussion as follows:

"Do the children gain intellectually, by being put to books, as they are, under the age of six? It is unquestionably true that they do not. In many cases children, who are sent to school quite young, lose all their interests in school matters before they are really able to appreciate their value, or comprehend the meaning of their lessons. Is it not true that many children, who were considered quite forward scholars at the age of six, become dull and uninterested at the age of twelve years? Fully believing that all time under the age of six spent in school, is a positive injury to all concerned, I would suggest the propriety of making some change in reference to the age at which pupils shall be admitted to, or of so modifying the character of our primary schools that young children shall be confined but a short time at once."

We will not forbear to quote the report in reference to the visiting of schools by parents.

"Children often attend school, season after season, and see no parent within the room. The teacher urges upon their attention the great value of knowledge, and repeats his earnest desire for their improvement,—but, not unfrequently, his words and interest are almost neutralized by the indifference and inattention of their dearest friends. They begin to think that education is of but little consequence, and that it matters not whether they are industrious or idle. As they never see their parents within the school-room, they begin to think that their teacher is the only individual interested in their progress, and that he is so because it is in the 'way of his business.' Hence a teacher's injunctions and example often fall powerless, for the want of the quickening *influences* of a parent's interest, and a parent's approval.

"*In* passing through manufacturing villages, we frequently notice *over the* doors of certain buildings, in large characters, 'No ADMIT-

TANCE, EXCEPT ON BUSINESS.' Plain and positive as this inscription appears to be, it does not always prove effectual. Yankee curiosity, and Yankee ingenuity will contrive to gain an entrance. I have sometimes thought that if the word 'SCHOOLHOUSE' should be placed over these buildings, and the above inscription be placed over the doorways of our schoolhouses, the result might be favorable to both."

We have quoted from only a few of the many topics ably discoursed upon in this report, and think we shall have occasion to refer to it again. Thanking the author for his kindness in sending us a copy of his able production, we close by transferring to our pages his allusion to the munificence of George Peabody, the celebrated banker of London, a native of Danvers.

"Let us not be unmindful of the excellent and suggestive sentiment, so recently sent from beyond the Atlantic, by one whom Danvers should ever delight to honor as one of her noblest sons:—'EDUCATION: A DEBT DUE FROM PRESENT TO FUTURE GENERATIONS.'

"The prompt and generous manner in which this worthy son, who many years ago went from the home of his youth, has discharged *his* obligation, should stimulate those who remain about the old 'homestead' to see that the educational privileges, afforded by our schools, are, in all respects, such as will meet every want of the rapidly increasing and extending family. So long as Danvers may refer to GEORGE PEABODY as one of her sons, may she never prove recreant, remiss, nor sordid in reference to any project which may tend to elevate the moral, social, or intellectual condition of her numerous progeny."

We have received a copy of the "Report of the School Committee of Springfield." In a comparatively small compass, it comprises much that might very properly be transferred to our pages. We select a few passages.

SCHOOL DISTRICTS.

An attempt has been made, under the provisions of the City Charter, to dissolve (with the concurrence of the several school districts) the district organizations, and effect a transfer, upon fair and equitable terms, of all the school-houses and other district property, to the city; thus placing the school department in future, entirely at the expense, and under the control and direction of the city authorities. The plan met with general favor; yet through the want of entire unanimity among the districts, it has not been consummated. The time has now elapsed within which the proposed change might have been made, in the particular mode prescribed in the charter; yet it can now be effected under the general law of the Commonwealth.

The proposed plan has many and decided advantages over the existing District system, in reference to the classification and arrangement of the pupils *and of the schools*, and to economy, system, and convenience *in providing school-houses* for different sections of the city. And it

is very desirable that this object should be accomplished, so soon as it can be done consistently with a due regard to the feelings and rights of all concerned.

TEACHERS.

The Committee would bespeak the confidence and earnest coöperation of parents and others in behalf of teachers. Their labors are arduous, and they often meet with difficulties and perplexities. They need, therefore, to be encouraged and sustained in their course. If at any time serious complaints exist against a teacher, let them not be made the occasion of exciting a general opposition and prejudice against him in the district, and thereby impairing, if not destroying his influence and usefulness in his school; but let the matter be brought before the Committee for investigation and decision. A teacher never should be discharged from office on trivial grounds or upon popular excitement merely; but whenever the step is judged necessary or expedient, it should be taken for good cause—on due deliberation, and with suitable notice, and in a manner, too, that will do the least injury to the person concerned,—for character and professional reputation, are as dear to teachers as to others; and, indeed, in most cases, more so, because they generally form their only capital.

HEALTH OF TEACHERS.

The health of our teachers is perhaps as good as that of teachers generally, which is not the most robust. Can the teachers of Springfield possess a larger measure of this precious boon? We believe they can. We know that the majority of them do not take sufficient exercise in the open air. The brain should frequently be relieved from the pressure of blood invited to it by mental application, and where can this blood with more safety be driven than into the muscles. Firm muscle and sound discipline have been more intimately associated as cause and effect, than at the present day of improvement. Teachers then performed much manual labor in the school-room; now they work more with the head and heart. Evenness and sweetness of temper, soundness of judgment, clearness of mental vision, and skill in imparting instruction, are very closely connected with vigorous bodily powers. A teacher should be able to lead his scholars up Mount Tom or Holyoke as well as up the hill of science.

The poisonous air of the school-room, and too often of the dormitory, is another enemy of the teacher's health, even more destructive than bodily inactivity. We would live much longer, and have deeper thoughts and better hearts in pure air, without moving a muscle, than by the most judicious exercise in a foul atmosphere. This casts a pall over the countenance, causes loss of appetite, impatience, want of energy, and many other evils too hastily attributed to the delightful, and if rightly pursued, healthful duties of the teacher.

We do not assert that teachers can be as strong and rugged as farmers, but do claim, that vigorous health and buoyant spirits are compatible with six hours' labor in the school-room, during five days *in the week*, to say nothing of the wholesome vacations. No teacher *should be overtasked*. Money can more easily multiply teachers, *than buy health* for them when once undermined.

Frequent changes of teachers are injurious to schools. For this reason then, if for no higher, we would respectfully suggest that those who are so faithful to the interests of the young, of parents, and of our country, should be as faithful to themselves, and not be obliged to leave our schools on account of broken down constitutions and blighted hopes of usefulness. In a word, let our teachers use every means which their good sense dictates, for the promotion of their own health and that of the children committed to their care.

HEALTH OF SCHOLARS.

Comparatively few children and youth interfere with health by intense mental effort. On the other hand, irregular attendance, and lazy habits, often lead to gross irregularities of life and loss of health. Teachers may do much to promote the health of their scholars by precept and example. A word or two on this subject, as occasion demands, may correct some injurious habit of a child which has been overlooked or unseen by the parent. The art of maintaining health is an exceedingly appropriate study for children, and might profitably occupy the attention of all our schools, once a week, as a distinct recitation. Bad lessons might often be traced to bad stomachs; dull heads to indulgence of the appetite. The digestion of the child is *practically* believed by many parents to be equal to that of the ostrich, while the teacher is appalled at the superiority of heels over head. Scholars should regard more the position of their bodies while absorbed in their books. Round shoulders, projecting shoulder blades, and diseased lungs are some of the fruits of heedlessness on this point. Shoulder braces should never be worn by children, unless their Creator has omitted to provide suitable muscles to keep them straight.

The practice of requiring the children in our Intermediate and Primary schools to fold their arms across their breasts, thereby cramping the lungs and causing the shoulder blades to project, is happily giving place to a plan far more judicious; that of placing the hands behind the back, especially when those mischievous members need discipline.

Arm chairs for children (used in some of our Primary schools) may prove injurious by pressing up the shoulders, weakening and making crooked the back, and by preventing in a great degree such healthy movements of the little frame as are consistent with the good order of the school.

GOOD ORDER AND DISCIPLINE.

These are essential elements in the character of a good school. Without them nothing of value can be accomplished by a teacher. Different modes are adopted for securing these ends. Severe measures should be resorted to, only after those of a milder character have been faithfully tried and have failed to answer the purpose. The teacher should first of all, strive to win the love and respect of his pupils, and if he *succeeds* in this, he will not find much difficulty in *managing his school.*

In Primary and Mixed schools, in which there are many very young children, teachers often find it difficult to preserve stillness and order. Various expedients should be devised, in such cases, for interesting the children, and counteracting their natural restlessness. Among these, the most effectual we have seen, is the *use of the slate.* Very small children will sit down with a slate and pencil, and quietly employ themselves for a long time in drawing pictures of animals, houses, &c., or in writing or printing letters and words. By thus amusing themselves, they relieve the tedium of school hours, and are kept in order and quietness; and the employment is also a profitable one, in the way of preparation for more important exercises in writing and drawing. *Every child, therefore, in a Primary School, should be provided with a slate and pencil.*

THE HIGH SCHOOL.

This school is under the charge of Mr. Parish as Principal, with Miss Bliss and Miss Maxwell as assistants. The long experience, and distinguished talents of the Principal are widely known and appreciated. With the aid of efficient assistants, Mr. Parish laid the foundation of this school, and has reared its superstructure, and it now stands a *Model* school, the pride and ornament of the city. Both the assistants are faithful and able teachers, and one of them, Miss Bliss, has been associated with Mr. Parish and his predecessor in this school during the last eleven years.

The building in which the school is kept, is one of the most substantial and tasteful in the city. It was erected by the Centre School District for schools of the highest grade, and is well fitted in every respect for this purpose; and by an arrangement between the District and Municipal authorities, the upper story is appropriated for the use of the present High School. Prior to this arrangement, a High School had been maintained for several years by the Centre District for the accommodation of its most advanced scholars; and the present school is a continuation of the former, and is indeed the same, with this difference, — that it is changed from a District to a Town or City High School. At the time of the change, Mr. Parish was the Principal, and had been for several years previous.

The present High School was established by virtue of an Act requiring that every town containing 4000 inhabitants shall maintain a school in which shall be taught the History of the United States, Bookkeeping, Surveying, Geometry, Algebra, also the Latin and Greek languages, Geography, General History, Rhetoric and Logic. It went into operation in May, 1849.

The design of this school is to give to *all* that education *at home* which comparatively few, and those the more wealthy, obtain for their children by sending them abroad. And, with this view, the same systematic and thorough course of instruction is pursued as in academies and the higher schools of learning, so that all our children, after passing through the lower schools, may, if they wish, and have qualified themselves for admission, enter this school, and obtain such an education as will fit them for any business or station in life.

Some of the benefits of this school are the following:

It develops talent which otherwise might never have come to light;

educates many who never could go abroad for the purpose; is a saving of expense to parents in educating their children, and enables them to retain them at home under their own watch during the years of greatest danger. It has moreover enabled a large number of girls to become qualified for teaching, many of whom are now thus engaged; and in this respect it corresponds in a measure with the Female Normal Schools in Boston and Philadelphia. Many of the boys also, educated in this school, are already found engaged in more elevated and lucrative emyloyments than they would have been, had they enjoyed only the advantages afforded in the schools of a lower grade. They have become more intelligent farmers, mechanics or merchants, and many are employed in various departments of railroad building in different parts of the country, also as telegraph operators, clerks in banks, and large commercial establishments. While public enterprise and business demand cultivated talent and will pay liberally for it, why should not the boys of Springfield receive the benefit as well as others?

But this school confers benefits beyond what are received by those who have been, or are now numbered among its pupils. It exerts a salutary influence upon all the schools below it, by inciting the pupils to greater exertions, and inspiring them with a laudable ambition, by diligence and good conduct to pass from one grade of schools to another, till they finally reach the highest. But more than this, the High School is a *model* for the imitation of all the subordinate schools; and if its utility were measured *only* by the influence of its example upon our other schools in respect to discipline, good order, systematic arrangement, and thorough instruction, this of itself would in a great degree, if not fully, remunerate the city for all the expense incurred in its maintenance.

For the Massachusetts Teacher.

MR. EDITOR:—

I see that there is to be an Institute held at Nantucket during the first week of August next. Now, I know of no class of persons who need more to unite business with pleasure, for the sake of economy, than teachers; and as Nantucket is becoming somewhat known as a place of summer resort, why cannot we have an "excursion" at the time mentioned?

Last year, the Nantucket Steamboat Company, with great liberality, gave free passes to all Nantucket's teachers, for the purpose of attending an "association" in New Bedford.

It cannot be doubted that the railroad companies, whose routes lead *towards* Nantucket, will be willing to afford every facility for the excursion, and thus enable every teacher in the State both to recreate and learn.

Of course, this communication is written with entirely selfish *motives, because it is by* one who wishes to go.

"CORNELII NEPOTIS LIBER DE EXCELLENTIBUS DUCIBUS EXTERARUM GENTIUM CUM VITIS CATONI ET ATTICI." *Schimitz and Zumpt's Classical Series.*

No teacher of the Classics should neglect to read the charming little work of Cornelius Nepos on the lives of the distinguished generals of Greece. The interest which youth in the earlier stage of their progress, always manifest in this book, makes it desirable as a work to put into their hands. It has been published with the same care and research that the learned annotators have bestowed upon the other works of their series. It may be found at W. D. Ticknor & Co's, corner of School and Washington Streets.

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

The annual meeting of the American Institute of Instruction will be held at New Haven, Conn., on the 16th, 17th, and 18th of August, next.

Arrangements have been made, by which persons wishing to attend the meetings of the Institute, can obtain tickets from Boston, Worcester, and Springfield, to New Haven and back, at half the usual rates.

CHAS. E. VALENTINE,
Sec'y Com. Arr.

Boston, June 15th, 1853.

PRIZE ESSAYS.

The following Prizes for original Essays are offered by the Massachusetts Teachers' Association :—

To the members of the Association, for the best Essay, on either of the following subjects, a prize of *twenty dollars.*

1. "The importance of increasing the number of Female Teachers qualified to give instruction in the Higher Departments of Education."
2. "The Evils and Remedies of Whispering, or communicating, in School."

To the female teachers of the State, for the best Essay, on either of the following subjects, a prize of *twenty dollars.*

1. "Best Method of Conducting a Primary School."
2. "Thoroughness in Teaching."

The Essays must be forwarded to the Secretary, *Charles J. Capen, Esq., Latin School, Boston,* on or before the 15th of October. Each Essay should be accompanied by a sealed envelope, enclosing the name of the writer. The envelopes accompanying the unsuccessful Essays will not be opened. The prizes will be awarded by an impartial Committee; but no prize will be awarded to an Essay that is not deemed worthy of one. The successful Essays will be regarded as *the property* of the Association.

W. H. WELLS, President.

Newburyport, April 18, 1853.

THE

MASSACHUSETTS TEACHER.

Vol. VI. No. 8.] J. W. P. JENKS, Editor of this Number. [August, 1853.

THE STUDY OF NATURAL HISTORY.

It is an obvious fact that our snorting iron-horses, thundering steamboats, and lightning post-routes, are waking up the senses of seeing and hearing, to such an extent, that the giant intellects of the present day are everywhere rubbing off the scales of metaphysical abstractions, and swiftly forming upon the battle-ground of physical and natural science, to fight the great battle of the *evidences*. To paraphrase a quotation from Hugh Miller, "the Lockes, Humes, Kents, Dugald Stewarts, Thomas Browns, and Edwardses, belong to the past,—and the philosophers of the present time, tall enough to be seen all the world over, are the Humboldts, the Aragos, the Agassizes, the Liebigs," the Hares, the Henrys, the Hitchcocks and the Guyots,—men, who are searching for fact, and carefully holding themselves aloof from bias, deduce conclusions from the tangible convictions of experimental demonstration. Their postulates even are subjected to the strictest scrutiny, that nothing may be taken for granted, but every thing become assertion only upon the incontrovertible evidence of the senses. Infidelity battered, bruised, crushed in her encounter with the evangelical of the former class, has hydra-like arrayed herself in opposition to the evangelical of the latter class, and with a bolder front, and, if possible, a more hideous, as well as assuredly more seductive form, challenges the combat. The generals, marshals, subalterns, and even private soldiers, are already enrolled on the side of infidelity—a mighty army—and "telling so widely on society, that one can scarce travel by railway or *in a steamboat*, or meet a group of intelligent *mechanics, without finding* decided trace of its ravages." As

stated by the author of the Foot-prints of the Creator, "the "great antagonist" points in the array of the opposite lines, are simply the law of development *versus* the great miracle of creation." The infidel philosopher of the present day, flinging away all metaphysical speculations and mystifying language, steps up to a plain, unsophisticated, but practical mind, and placing before him an egg, appeals to the evidence of his sight, and inquires if he sees in it anything like a *chicken*. No! is the ready response. He places the egg in an eccaleobion, and ere long shows his dupe a chicken, and then asks again, if he sees in this unfledged peeper, the feathered fowl, or hears the stentorian voice of the vociferous chanticleer. No! He gives food, and ere long the down of puberty becomes the coarse feather of maturity, and the peep of infancy, the stentorophonic note of age. Now appealing to the wonder excited in the hitherto unsophisticated observer of these phenomena, he next inquires, with an air of triumph, "And now what do you think?" "Why! I must believe the evidence of my senses," is the reply, and thus having put his victim off his guard by this physical demonstration, in which, however marvellous the process, he is not accustomed to observe in any of its stages the slightest mixture of miracle, the pseudo-philosopher reverses the order of illustration and substitutes man as a species as the example, and says, "Do you observe how slight the difference between men and monkeys?" Well, this is only the accident of adventitious circumstances. But do you see how nearly allied the monkey is to the squirrel, and the squirrel to a bat, and the bat to a bird, and the bird to a reptile, and the reptile to a fish, and the fish to an oyster, and the oyster to a microscopic monad, and in *it*, you find the germ of the human race, just as you found the yolk of the egg, concealing the embryonic chicken. That is to say, "whatever is created is microscopic; and whatever is not microscopic, is not created," but developed: i. e., man, *as such*, has not been created, but developed, during the long geologic periods,—the changes from the original microscopic monad, which only some of these infidels will allow to have been created, having been so gradual, and, as it were, imperceptible, that, in process of time, some one individual of each species, has, under the power of a concurrence of circumstances, changed into a higher order, and propagating that new species, in process of time, some one individual of it has in like manner, *naturally*, they say, developed into a higher order still, and so on till the grade of man has been attained to, just as all the varieties of the human race have *been* produced by casual circumstances, *all*, as is conceded, having sprung from one original pair. In an address delivered not long since, before the St. Andrew's Horticultural Society, there

occurs the following passage, as quoted by Hugh Miller: "Life is governed by external conditions, and new conditions imply new races; but then, as to their *creation*, that is the '*mystery of mysteries.*' Are they created by an immediate fiat and direct act of the Almighty? or has he originally impressed life with an elasticity and adaptability, so that it shall take upon itself new forms and characters according to the conditions to which it shall be subjected? Each opinion has had and still has its advocates; but the truth is, that *science*, so far as it knows, or rather so far as it has had the honesty and courage to avow, has yet been unable to pronounce a satisfactory decision. *Either way it matters little, physically or morally;* either mode implies the same omnipotence and wisdom, and foresight and protection; and it is only your little religious sects and scientific coteries which make a pother about the matter,—sects and coteries, of which it may be justly said, that they would almost exclude God from the management of his own world, if not managed and directed in the way that they would have it." At first blush, this doctrine does not seem to be atheistic, because it acknowledges a Creator, and appeals to the opponent to say, why the First Great Cause might not as certainly have originated the human species by a law of development, as to maintain it by a law of development, which latter none will deny as long as man is observed to be born in an immature state, and growing up from infancy to childhood, and childhood to youth, and youth to manhood.

"But," to quote again from the Foot-prints of the Creator, "there are certain beliefs," [into the enumeration of which we will not enter at this time,] "which are as important to the moralist and Christian, as a belief in the existence of a God, but which seem wholly incompatible with the development hypothesis."

Such is in brief the threatening storm to be provided against. *Threatening!* may it not be said to have already burst upon us? Institute an inquiry in our Colleges, Academies and High Schools, and even a cursory examination will suffice to prove that infidelity in this insidious form, is entrenching itself and sapping the foundations of our literary society, and though there may be no hope of finding a shelter from the storm, except under the covert of true Christianity, as science-enlightened France, groaning under the yoke of civil discord, will testify, yet knowledge is the handmaid of religion, and sustains so intimate a relation to it, that while knowledge may exist without religion, religion does not exist as a *national* blessing without knowledge. We flatter ourselves, as a nation, that we have had the former *transplanted* to our shores through the agency *of our forefathers; but* that it may take root and grow with our

national growth, and strengthen with our national strength, we must supply the soil congenial to its growth, and recruiting to its strength.

And, too, as infidelity has now entrenched herself upon the battle-ground of Natural History, thither we must repair, and attacking her in her very entrenchments, dislodge and destroy, ere she shall have allured to her standard so many of our fellow-citizens and youth, that numbers shall absolutely control us.

Hence the great argument in favor of introducing the study of Natural History into our common schools as a branch of elementary education —this, the moral and religious argument; since to it infidelity hath fled for a refuge, and will, ere long, recruited and replenished, dart forth from her lurking-place, prepared to scatter broadcast the seeds of an error, far more subtle and insinuating than any whose instrumentality she has heretofore employed.

Nor avails it to imagine that we are by these expressions, sounding the note of false alarm. What teacher of an Academy or High School, has not been called upon by his pupils to reconcile Geology and Genesis, death as an inevitable consequence of physical life and as a consequence of Adam's transgression, or the Noachian Deluge and the preservation in the ark of all animal existences? The present is emphatically the *observing* age, in which the works of nature are taken up, as it were, one by one, and turned over and scrutinized cursorily and microscopically, as never before during the historic period. Nor is this recent mode of investigating peculiar to any one branch of natural science. How remarkable that thirty-eight years should have elapsed between the discovery of the fourth and the fifth asteroid, and only eight years between the discovery of the fifth and the twenty-sixth of that remarkable group. And what may we not expect to have speedily unfolded to the eye, by the microscope, when the greatest artists in the world are vieing with each other in producing the finest instruments, and the greatest naturalists of the age have ceased almost entirely the examination of nature in its grosser forms, and are employed in the inspection of its elementary arrangements? But while this mode of investigation is doubtless the only philosophical one,—promising truthful results,—yet we seem to see in it, a new cause for alarm, when considering its moral bearings. An inclination to the *marvellous* is so natural to the human mind, that whatever challenges belief, by concealment of a part on the ground of its being invisible, or perhaps incomprehensible, while enough is manifest to give assurance of *some* reality, is much more likely to be readily adopted by the *mass*, than as though every thing was plainly perceived and comprehensible. Therefore microscopical examinations afford a

better opportunity to the mere theorist to palm off his views under cover of that concealment which the nature of the case furnishes to him. Let, then, men of known integrity enter the lists and meet the atheistic observer, who fancifully speculates upon the embryonic development, as though it had the claim of an ocular demonstration. We count it happy for science and religion, that in this country, at least, such men are already in the field of investigation, and in the front rank too, men of acknowledged superiority, who, while they pry with curious eyes into the innermost recesses of nature's workshop and make bold to handle, so to speak, her crude and immature forms, still are content to believe "that the evidences of Christianity, and the narratives of the Gospel, are to be judged by the laws of historical evidence, from consciousness and testimony; and that the natural sciences have nothing to do with the subject, except as they modify in other ways our history and psychology." Men of such scientific skill, however, are seldom capable of presenting the results of their investigations, in a way such as to attract and inform the uninitiated mass who have never learned the alphabet of Natural History, in the examination of her more common and grosser forms. Let the child, however, be introduced to the study in the primary school—let it there be taught to observe for itself the more obvious presentations of nature, and thus acquire both the habit of observing and a skill *in* observing, and in maturer age he will be well prepared to follow the guidance of an Agassiz, through his explorations of embryonic life, until he can recognize an animal or a plant in any stage of its growth, "from the earliest germ to the latest decay."

Again, we argue the utility of the study of Natural History, more particularly in our primary schools, as a means of employing the minds of young pupils far more profitably than, as heretofore, in the study of abstractions. Is it not an obvious fact, well asserted to by every experienced teacher, that, as an average, those pupils who absolutely commence the study of Arithmetic and Grammar as late as their eleventh or twelfth year, at fourteen are as proficient in these branches as their companions of the same age, who have been delving into them from the period of six or eight? Why then persevere in a system of training that evidently is unnatural, not to say stultifying? especially when there is no longer the excuse that elementary text-books upon this subject are not to be found; though we should much prefer that the teacher would abjure the use of all text-books, in the earlier stages of imparting instruction in this science, until the natural enthusiasm of the child is aroused, and he comes to the investigation from a love for the study. Its *knowledge being communicated* through the senses, it best *accords with the immature* powers of the very young child, who

cannot, however, fail to cultivate the reflective faculties to a reasonable extent, as the multiplied forms of animal and vegetable existence are presented to his eye, and suggest naturally a comparison of their distinctive differences and mutual relations. Again, how desirable that the *unnatural* horror at a view of some of the specimens of Natural History with which most are impressed, should be worked out of the mind!—a horror most wickedly instilled in the nursery, and, from the immoral tendencies therein involved, doubtless exerting an influence upon the future character of the child, little appreciated, but nevertheless exceedingly potent. Dare any one say that the apparently instinctive tendency of some lads, to hector and worry their companions, is not the result of a bias, formed in the nursery or infant school, by being taught to regard every species of reptile and bug as an object to be abhorred, which under the influence of this training freely indulges the destructive propensity, until, from tormenting the lower forms of animal life, it displays itself in an utter disregard of the great law of reciprocity, as obtaining in human society?

Again, how extensive the use, every man in common life has, of a knowledge of Natural History. To take an extreme case: Place two men, according to the suggestion of an old Grecian philosopher, upon an uninhabited island, and let one be familiar with the common productions and laws of nature, and the other not, and which would have the advantage? Why, the one would gather his means of sustenance from every source,—the land and the water,—while the other would perish in the midst of profusion, either from fear of noxious qualities, or from a want of knowledge sufficient to discriminate between the noxious and the innoxious.

But lastly, the importance of this study may be peculiarly illustrated by allusions to the extensive moral influence it would have upon mankind, not merely as human and exposed to the shafts of infidelity, but as endowed with versatility and pliancy of mind. In the language of Agassiz, "Unless we study nature extensively, we remain almost strangers to the wonders of the universe; we remain unconscious of the beautiful harmony there is in creation; we fail to perceive distinctly that there is in nature a revelation of the Supreme Intelligence, which teaches us that every thing has been done with order, with a view to a plan, and with reference to the creation of that privileged being, to whom God has revealed himself in another manner; it is the fact that the revelation of God in nature, the manifold manifestation of his power, his wisdom, his intelligence, which are displayed throughout nature, remain a sealed book to those who are not early taught to read it, or they remain as a sort of undeciphered hieroglyphics, which man may easily misinterpret from

want of a sufficient knowledge of the characters in which they are written."

Finally we quote the beautiful language of Bryant in his Thanatopsis.

"To him who in the love of nature holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language; for his gayer hours
She has a voice of gladness, and a smile
And eloquence of beauty, and she glides
Into his darker musings, with a mild
And gentle sympathy, that steals away
Their sharpness, ere he is aware."

EXTRACTS FROM AN ADDRESS ON PHYSICAL EDUCATION,

DELIVERED BEFORE THE PLYMOUTH COUNTY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, DEC. 25, 1852, BY HON. WM. H. WOOD, OF MIDDLEBORO'.

THE causes of our physical infirmities are very obvious. They result from a violation of the laws of health and life. In our physical constitution, as in all other respects, we are "made under the law,"—natural laws inherent in our constitution,—as fixed and immutable as the laws which wheel the planets in their course. When we obey, health and long life are the reward of obedience. When we disobey, disease and premature death are the penalties of disobedience. When we see our young men, in the morning of life, bowed down with bodily infirmity; when we see those of the other sex, "in the beauty and hope of life," fading away beneath the hand of that insidious disease, which, in this state, in every day, of every year, deprives more than seven human beings of their lives, by far the greater proportion being from this class of our population,—we may know that these are penalties of violated law,—not always violated by the suffering individual, for the stream of life is continuous, from its source to its termination, and disease, as well as health, is transmitted from parent to child. When we see an individual, as we now and then do, who through a long life enjoys almost uninterrupted health, and finally descends to the tomb, with serenity and composure, from mere decay and exhaustion of the human frame, incident to old age, we know that this result takes place through the agency of fixed law, for chance has no place in the economy of Providence. On the other hand, when we find it recorded, that in England, the annual average number of deaths from disease is 300,000, while that from mere *decay from the* progress of time, is only 35,000, we *see how general is the* disregard of the laws of life; so, too,

the great fact, that as nearly as can be ascertained from our registration reports, the deaths from old age, in Massachusetts, are only seven per cent. of the whole number, teaches us the same lesson.

As, then, we find the cause of our physical deterioration in the violation of the laws of health, our remedy for this evil is a return to obedience. This way safety lies. Perfect obedience would be attended with perfect health, and with all the vigor and beauty of which the human constitution is susceptible; and just so far as we remain obedient, shall we approximate this perfect result. Progress, however, must be gradual. The sins of the father are visited upon the children, even unto the third and fourth generation, and our return must be through the same path by which we came. Not in one generation can the dwarfed stature regain its full height and symmetrical proportions, or the contracted chest regain its full expansion. More time is requisite to raise and expand what Shakspeare calls, "the villainous low forehead," and give breadth and harmonious proportion to the dome of thought, than was required to "round St. Peter's dome," a century though that was in building. * * * * * * * * *

This, then, is physical education, which has been so much neglected in Massachusetts, and the effects of which we are now experiencing. Its object is to bring the subject of this education into harmony with the laws impressed upon his physical constitution by his Creator; to give to the body all the health and fulness of life of which it is susceptible; to enable man to withstand all the adverse influences that may surround him, change of climate, the vicissitudes of the seasons, and "the pestilence that walketh in darkness." A person in full health who is obedient to the laws of life will withstand all the approaches of disease as surely as a moral and religious man will withstand the assaults made upon his moral nature. When the pestilence rages, and death seems to be borne upon the breezes of heaven, why does one stand while others fall? The religious man says that it is an overruling Providence, who spares whom he will. The physiologist says that it is the action of fixed law, which protects those who are obedient to it. The Christian philosopher says that it is *both*,—Providence acting through his laws. Wellington, the Iron Duke, as he was called, apart from the dangers incident to the profession of arms, was exposed to all the perils of disease attendant on frequent change of climate, and the fatigue and exposure of a soldier's life. Yet while thousands fell around him, he walked *unharmed* and maintained his vigor of body until near the close *of his long* and eventful life. The object of physical education *is to give* this vigor of body to all; to cause health to reign

where disease has prevailed; to dry up the streams by which our hospitals, our lunatic asylums and schools for idiots are supplied.

This subject appeals to far higher sentiments than self-love, and extends much beyond the present generation. In this respect, as in all others, we live for the future. The influence of to-day, is felt far down the stream of time. As we are sharing in the rewards and penalties affixed to the action of those who have gone before us, so shall we transmit a portion of the good or evil connected with our conduct to those who shall come after. In respect to the physical laws, "the good which men do, lives after them," and "the evil is" *not* "interred with their bones." Although the doctrine of supererogation, that a man may do good work enough for his own salvation, and have something over which may be set to the account of others, is not true in morals, it seems in some sense true, in regard to the physical laws. We sometimes see a man who seemingly disregards nearly all the laws of his being, and still remains in comparative health. Such instances are sometimes adduced to prove that there are no fixed laws of life. But although such an individual does not obey the laws, his ancestors did, and thus laid up for him a fund of health and vigor which was transmitted to him in his own constitution, a richer legacy than coffers filled with gold; and upon this fund he has been continually making drafts. The present generation is sowing the seeds of health or disease, which shall bear an abundant harvest, to be gathered by those that succeed. * * * *

The reasons which give importance to the subject of physical education, commend themselves particularly to teachers. Through their influence and their labors must this work be carried forward in Massachusetts. The law has thrown a responsibility upon them, by requiring that they qualify themselves for this work. Were the 6,709 teachers of our state to engage in this work with zeal, one generation of children should not pass through our schools without great results. Those instrumental in producing such results should be ranked amongst the greatest benefactors of the race. If he is a benefactor who founds hospitals for the relief of the poor, the diseased, and the insane, much more are those, who, having wisdom for such a work, ascend to the head waters of the stream of life, and purify the fountain, whence flow those streams of pauperism, insanity and death.

When the young man finds himself wasting away under the hand of disease, he would give all that he possesses, could he woo back the goddess of health to his side. When the fond mother bends over the frail child, whose life seems fast waning away, she would give worlds could she plant the roses of health

in that wan and fading cheek. It is now too late. But could such "remount the river of life," and with the eye of science examine its course, they would find the point where the bitter waters of disease first mingled with the stream, and where the hand of precaution might have checked their flow, and the evils which cannot be removed might have been prevented. But through ignorance and neglect, such precaution was not used. It is yours to give such instruction and training, that the causes of these evils may be guarded against, ere their sad and fatal results are experienced, and the future shall be made more happy than the past, through your labors.

EXTRACT FROM AN ADDRESS ON THOROUGHNESS OF EDUCATION,

DELIVERED BEFORE THE PLYMOUTH CO. TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, JUNE 11, 1853, BY REV. J. P. TERRY, OF SOUTH WEYMOUTH.

THE youth of our land need a thorough moral as well as intellectual training. Man has conscience and heart as well as intellect, and the former need culture no less than the latter. The true idea of education is the development of all the faculties of the soul; and in proportion as any part is neglected, is the education incomplete, and the character formed imperfect. And it is only by a symmetrical development of the *whole*, that any *one* part can attain to its full growth. Cultivate the intellect as assiduously as you can, provide schools in which the utmost that human science *can* do, *shall be* done for invigorating its powers and enlarging its capacities; and yet, if you neglect moral and religious culture, you withhold what is better adapted than any thing else to its expansion and growth, and so prevent its perfect development. Religion is the great want of the human mind. The sublime truths which have to do with the conscience and the heart, meet also the highest demands of the intellect, and furnish it with its most substantial and invigorating aliment, and are therefore essential to its full development. And on the other hand, some degree of intellectual culture is indispensable to the apprehension and application of those truths and principles of religion on which the cultivation of the moral nature depends. No system of education, then, is complete, which does not provide for moral and religious, as well as intellectual training. But if either must be neglected, it should be the latter. If there must be a defect anywhere in education, for the good of the *individual*, and of society, let it not be in respect to the *conscience* and the heart. The evils resulting from a defective *mental* culture are infinitely less than those which follow a de-

fective or vicious moral training. And yet, is not more attention paid at the present day to intellectual than to moral culture? And is it not the great defect in our common schools, that too much is made of the intellect in them, and too little of the heart? The cultivation of the intellect is the great object sought, both by parents and teachers, and the moral nature receives but comparatively little attention. But is this right? Does it accord with the intentions of our Creator, as disclosed by the constitution of our being, and as expressed in his word? Does not the heart *need* culture as well as the intellect, and is it not equally *capable* of it? Are not the teachings of God's word, and the lessons of his providence as wisely adapted to the moral as to the intellectual part of our nature, — and so proof that he has as high a regard for the improvement of the former as of the latter? And shall we disregard his intentions, and make the intellect everything and the heart nothing? And by such a system of education can we expect the rising generation to be qualified to fill the places of their fathers, maintain the institutions which are the glory of our land, and uphold the pillars of this free republic? If there be any lesson taught by history, it is that mere knowledge never qualifies men for self-government, and that republican institutions cannot long stand, which are not founded upon public virtue. The ancient republics fell into the graves dug by their vices, while knowledge in them was at its greatest height. Intelligence among a people is an element of power, but unless guided by principle it will prove a demon of instruction. The great pillars of our republic are intelligence and virtue. Neither can be removed, and the edifice stand. Our national existence, then, depends upon the right moral as well as intellectual training of the rising generation; and hence it is important that along with the other instruction given in our common schools there be taught the principles and precepts of Christian morality. I say Christian morality, because Christianity is not only the true religion, but is also the recognized religion of the land. Its morality, therefore, and not the morality of any foreign or false religious system, should be inculcated in its schools of learning. It was one object of our fathers, in establishing public schools, to provide for the moral and religious training of their children; and they required not only the Bible but a religious creed to be taught in them. On account of the great diversity of religious sentiment prevailing among the people at the present time, the state has wisely excluded from the schools distinctive creeds. Still it has not banished religion from them, nor forbidden in them the culture of the heart along with that of the intellect. It enjoins it as a duty upon all "preceptors and teachers of academies, and all other instructors of youth, to *exert their best* endeavors to impress on the minds of children

and youth committed to their care and instruction the principles of piety, justice and a sacred regard to truth, love to their country, humanity and universal benevolence, sobriety, industry and frugality, chastity, moderation and temperance, and those other virtues which are the ornament of human society, and the basis upon which a republican constitution is founded." Thus the laws of the Commonwealth not merely *allow*, they *require* moral as well as intellectual training in the common school. They do not simply accord it to teachers as a *privilege*, they enjoin it upon them as a *duty*, to "inculcate piety and Christian morals, love to God and love to man." "Massachusetts," says the Secretary of the Board of Education, "holds that religion is the highest and noblest possession of the mind, and is conducive to all the true interests of man and society, and therefore she cannot do otherwise than seek to place her schools under its beneficent influence." So far, then, as the State requires religious instruction to be given in the common school, it should not be withheld. And any attempt to divorce religion from learning, to exclude the Bible from schools or prohibit the inculcation in them of those principles of virtue and religion which the State has pronounced to be essential to her welfare, should be met with the most determined resistance.

PREPARATION OF SPECIMENS OF NATURAL HISTORY.

In looking over the indexes of the past numbers of the "Teacher," we have been much surprised to find it utterly destitute of all allusion to the study of Natural History since the first number of volume 3d, January, 1850, edited by Prof. Agassiz. In that number, however, we find so able an article upon the subject, from the pen of the distinguished editor, that we questioned much, whether we could better serve the cause of education, than by republishing the article entire, as an atonement for the neglect shown to this important branch of elementary education during the three and a half years of our utter silence upon the subject.

We have, however, concluded, though reluctantly, to content ourselves with calling the attention of our brother teachers to the article, and exhorting to a fresh perusal, and a determination to put its most excellent suggestions into practice.

On page 28 of the same number, we find also an unacknowledged article, entitled "Some Hints on making collections for the use of Schools," which from its eminently useful suggestions deserves a more exalted title than "hints;" and we sincerely

hope this allusion to both articles, will stir up the *practical* readers of the Teacher, to a careful reperusal of that Number.

It is gratifying to know that the study of Natural History as a science, is gradually incorporating itself into our system of elementary instruction, and promises ere long to be a constituent part of it. This indication is most clearly manifested in the fact that organizations for the promotion of this end, are being formed in at least some of our *country* towns — thus entering upon the study in the *natural* field for it, where the objects of its investigation are presented fresh to the hand for examination. Cities are *artificial* — the country only is *natural.* And to awaken an enthusiasm which shall interest every separate town in the Commonwealth, in the study of its individual natural history, there needs, we think, only a little effort on the part of the permanent teachers. In every community, enough of the constant residents can be found, who would aid by a small contribution, in furnishing the necessary boxes and jars for preserving the specimens, and if School Committees would, at the examination of teachers, merely suggest to them to send to the place of deposit, whatsoever might fall into their hands, the natural history of the town in respect to its grosser character, at least, must, in a few years, be collected ready for examination in detail by some distinguished naturalist, who might thus easily make out the survey of the entire state. Indeed, would the state secure a topographical survey of its natural history, it suggests itself to us as the most economical, as well as feasible plan, to have the Legislature appoint a practical lecturer, who should visit every town and spend three days in the principal village of each, giving explicit directions as to how specimens may be preserved, and who, by constant correspondence, should for *five* years afterwards endeavor to keep up the interest in collecting and preserving, in the expectation that at the end of that time he would make a personal examination of each town collection, and thus secure the material for a more extensive and accurate report than could possibly be obtained in any other way. Such a collection, the town of Bridgewater is making for itself, through a definite organization of the citizens, and we trust their worthy example may be speedily followed by many other towns. In some, however, private individuals are doing the same thing, which doubtless is the course most certain of success.

As an encouragement, let it be remembered that every town has a natural history in some particulars peculiar to itself.

And this is the first idea to be, as it were, indelibly impressed,— that a town collection far transcends in interest a foreign collection, and, in the present state of the diffusion of a knowledge of the Science would be to most of the residents

quite as surprising as well as interesting, as a cabinet of specimens from abroad. Indeed, the writer has been greatly astonished at the ignorance of many men, upon this subject, though reputed as men of acute observation as farmers. An individual is rarely met with in this vicinity, who, if he pretend to any information at all upon the subject, is not fully persuaded that the whippoorwill and nighthawk are the same bird, or that moles are exceedingly injurious to vegetation, and the country abounds in poisonous serpents. But let a little more knowledge be diffused, respecting the habits of birds, and specimens of all that are known to breed within the limits of any town be preserved in its cabinet, merely as stuffed skins unmounted or in alcohol, and our legislators would soon revoke some of the present foolish laws, designed to preserve certain birds from the fowler, by limiting the time when they may be secured to certain months, since to one at all familiar with the habits of birds, it is a well known fact that certain birds cross the state northwardly during the restricted months, and might be sought for in vain during the unrestricted months. But our design in commencing this article was only to introduce an extract from Prof. Baird's "Directions for preserving specimens of Natural History," as published under the patronage of the Smithsonian Institution, hoping its publication in this journal may induce some individuals to attempt the practice of taxidermy, at least to the preserving of unmounted skins of birds and animals.

§ I. INSTRUMENTS, PRESERVATIVE MATERIALS, &C.

1. IMPLEMENTS FOR SKINNING.

The implements necessary in skinning vertebrated animals are: 1. A knife, such as is used for ordinary dissection, and which may be replaced in extreme cases, by a penknife. 2. A pair of sharp-pointed scissors, and one with strong, short blades. 3. Needles and thread for sewing up the incisions in the skin. 4. A hook by which to suspend the carcass of the animal while the operation of skinning is going on. To prepare the hook, take a string, of from one to three feet in length, and fasten one end of it to a stout fish-hook which has had the barb broken off. By means of a loop at the other end, the string may be suspended to a nail or awl, which, when the hook is inserted into the body of an animal, will give free use of both hands in the operation of skinning.

2. PRESERVATIVES.

The best material for the preservation of skins of animals consists of powdered arsenious acid, or the common arsenic of the shops. This may be used in two ways, either applied in dry powder to the moist skin, or else mixed with alcohol or water to the consistency of molasses, and put on with a brush. To the alcoholic solution should be added a little camphor. There are no satisfactory substitutes for arsenic; but, in its entire absence, corrosive sublimate, arsenical soap, camphor, alum, &c., may be employed.

The proper materials for stuffing out skins will depend much upon the size of the animal. For small birds and mammalia, cotton will be found most convenient; for the larger, tow. For those still larger, dry grass, straw, sawdust, bran, or other vegetable substances, may be used. Whatever substance is used, care must be taken that it be perfectly dry. In no event should animal matter, as hair, wool, or feathers, be employed.

§ II. SKINNING AND STUFFING.

1. BIRDS.

Whenever convenient, the following notes should be made previous to commencing the operation of skinning, as they will add much to the value of the specimens:—

1. The length, in inches, from tip of bill to the end of the tail; the distance between the two extremities of the outstretched wings; and the length of the wing from the carpal-joint. The numbers may be recorded as follows: 44, 66, 12, (as for a swan,) without any explanation; it being well understood that the above measurements follow each other in a fixed succession. These numbers may be written on the back of the label appended to each specimen.

2. The color of the eyes, that of the feet, bill, gums, membranes, caruncles, &c.

3. Are the heels covered or uncovered by the feathers of the belly?

4. Attitude of the body when at rest, whether vertical, oblique, or horizontal. Does the bird perch or not?

5. Position of the wings, whether supported or hanging, crossing on the tail or not. Are they continuous and covered by the feathers of the mantle (back) and breast for the upper third, the half, or the two-thirds of their length? Their extremity; does it reach the end of the tail, the half, or the fourth of its length? The three last points will be of great use in mounting the specimens.

Immediately after a bird is shot, the holes made by the shot should be plugged up, and the mouth and posterior nostrils plugged with cotton to prevent the escape of blood and the juices of the stomach. A long narrow paper cone should be made; the bird, if small enough, thrust in, head foremost, and the open end folded shut, taking care not to break or bend the tail feathers in the operation.*

When ready to proceed to skinning, remove the old cotton from the throat, mouth, and nostrils, and replace it by fresh. Then take the dimensions from the point of the bill to the end of the tail, from the tip of one wing to that of the other, when both are extended, and from the tip of the wing to the first or carpal-joint, as already indicated.

This being done, make an incision through the skin only, from the lower end of the breast bone to the anus. Should the intestines protrude in small specimens, they had better be extracted, great care being taken not to soil the feathers. Now proceed carefully to separate the skin on each side from the subjacent parts, until you reach the knee, and expose the thigh; when, taking the leg in one hand, push or

* *Crumpled or bent* feathers may have much of their elasticity and *original shape restored by* dipping in hot water.

thrust the knee up on the abdomen, and loosen the skin around it until you can place the scissors or knife underneath, and separate the joint with the accompanying muscles. Place a little cotton between the skin and body to prevent adhesion. Loosen the skin about the base of the tail, and cut through the vertebræ at the last joint, taking care not to sever the bases of the quills. Suspend the body by inserting the hook into the lower part of the back or rump, and invert the skin, loosening it carefully from the body. On reaching the wings, which had better be relaxed previously by stretching and pulling, loosen the skin from around the first bone, and cut through the middle of it, or, if the bird be small enough, separate it from the next at the elbow. Continue the inversion of the skin by drawing it over the neck, until the skull is exposed. Arrived at this point, detach the delicate membrane of the ear from its cavity in the skull, if possible, without cutting or tearing it; then, by means of the thumb-nails, loosen the adhesion of the skin to the other parts of the head, until you come to the very base of the mandibles, taking care to cut through the white nictitating membrane of the eye when exposed, without lacerating the ball. Scoop out the eyes, and, by making one cut on each side of the head, through the small bone connecting the base of the lower jaw with the skull, another through the roof of the mouth at the base of the upper mandible, and between the jaws of the lower, and a fourth through the skull behind the orbits, and parallel to the roof of the mouth, you will have freed the skull from all the accompanying brain and muscle. Should anything still adhere, it may be removed separately. In making the two first cuts, care must be taken not to injure or sever the zygoma, a small bone extending from the base of the upper mandible to the base of the lower jaw-bone. Clean off every particle of muscle and fat from the head and neck, and, applying the preservative abundantly to the skull, inside and out, as well as to the skin, restore these parts to their natural position. In all the preceding operations, the skin should be handled as near the point of adhesion as possible, especial care being taken not to stretch it.

The next operation is to connect the two wings inside of the skin by means of a string, which should be passed between the lower ends of the two bones joining the forearm, previously, however, cutting off the stump of the arm, if still adhering at the elbow. Tie the two ends of the string so that the wings shall be kept at the same distance apart, as when attached to the body. Skin the leg down to the scaly part, or tarsus, and remove all the muscle. Apply the arsenic to the bone and skin, and, wrapping cotton round the bone, pull it back to its place. Remove all the muscle and fat which may adhere to the base of the tail or the skin, and put on plenty of the preservative wherever this can be done. Lift up the wing, and remove the muscle from the forearm by making an incision along it, or, in many cases, the two joints may be exposed by carefully slipping down the skin towards the wrist-joint, the adhesion of the quills to the bone being loosened.

The bird is now to be restored to something like its natural shape by means of a filling of cotton or tow. Begin by opening the mouth and putting cotton into the orbits and upper part of the throat, until these parts have their natural shape. Next take tow or cotton, and, after making a roll rather less in thickness than the original neck,

put it into the skin, and push firmly into the base of the skull. By means of this, you can reduce or contract the neck if too much stretched. Fill the body with cotton, not quite to its original dimensions, and sew up the incision in the skin, commencing at the upper end, and passing the needle from the inside outwards; tie the legs and mandibles together, adjust the feathers, and, after preparing a cylinder of paper the size of the bird, push the skin into it so as to bind the wings closely to the sides. The cotton may be put in loosely, or a body the size of the original made by wrapping with threads. If the bird have long legs and neck, they had better be folded down over the body, and allowed to dry in that position. Economy of space is a great object in keeping skins, and such birds as herons, geese, swans, &c., occupy too much room when all their parts are in a natural position.

In some instances, as among the ducks, woodpeckers, &c., the head is so large that the skin of the neck cannot be drawn over it. In such cases, skin the neck down to the base of the skull, and cut it off there. Then draw the head out again, and, making an incision on the outside, down the back of the skull, skin the head. Be careful not to make too long a cut, and to sew up the incision again.

2. MAMMALS.

The mode of preparing mammals is precisely the same as the preceding, in all its general features. Care should be taken not to make too large an incision along the abdomen. The principal difficulty will be experienced in skinning the tail. To effect this, pass the slip-knot of a piece of strong twine over the severed end of the tail, and fastening the vertebræ firmly to some support, pull the twine towards the tip until the skin is forced off. Should the animal be large, and an abundance of preservative not at hand, the skin had better remain inverted. In all cases, it should be thoroughly and rapidly dried.

Skins may also be preserved, for a time, in spirits, in the absence of other preservative. This would, at all events, be better than their drying, especially in localities abounding in noxious insects.

For the continued preservation of hair or fur of animals against the attacks of moths and other destructive insects, it will be necessary to soak the skins in a solution of corrosive sublimate, in alcohol or whiskey, allowing them to remain from one day to several weeks, according to the size. After removal, the hair must be thoroughly washed or rinsed in clean water, to remove as much as possible of the sublimate; otherwise, exposure to light will bleach all the colors.

In some instances, large skins may be preserved by being salted down in casks.

With regard to the tails of mammalia, it may be well to remark that in some it can never be forced off in the common way of doing this operation. This is particularly the case with *beavers*, *opossums*, and those species which use their tail for prehension or locomotion. Here the tail is usually supplied with numerous tendinous muscles, which require it to be skinned by making a cut along the lower surface or right side of that organ, nearly from one end to the other, and removing *the bone and flesh*. It should then be sewed up again, after a *previous stuffing*.

WONDERS OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.

WHAT mere assertion will make any one believe that in one second of time, in one beat of the pendulum of a clock, a ray of light travels over 192,000 miles, and would therefore perform the tour of the world in about the same time that it requires to wink with our eyelids, and in much less than a swift runner occupies in taking a single stride? What mortal can be made to believe without demonstration, that the sun is almost a million times larger than the earth? and that, although so remote from us that a cannon-ball shot directly towards it, and maintaining its full speed, would be twenty years reaching it, it yet affects the earth by its attraction in an inappreciable instant of time? Who would not ask for demonstration, when told that a gnat's wing, in its ordinary flight, beats many hundred times in a second, or that there exist animated and regularly organized beings, many thousands of whose bodies, laid close together, would not extend an inch? But what are these to the astonishing truths which modern optical inquiries have disclosed, which teach us that every point of a medium through which a ray of light passes is affected with a succession of periodical movements, regularly occurring at equal intervals, no less than five hundred millions of millions of times in a single second!—that it is by such movements communicated to the nerves of our eyes that we see!—nay, more, that is the difference in the frequency of their recurrence which affects us with the sense of the diversity of color!—that, for instance, in acquiring the sensation of redness, our eyes are affected four hundred and eighty-two millions of millions of times, of yellowness five hundred and forty two millions of millions of times, and of violet seven hundred and seven millions of millions of times, per second! Do not such things sound more like the ravings of madmen than the sober conclusions of people in their waking senses? They are, nevertheless, conclusions to which any one may most certainly arrive, who will only be at the trouble of examining the chain of reason by which they have been obtained.—*Herschel.*

THE BIBLE.—The following is an account of the number of books, chapters, verses, words and letters contained in the Old and New Testament:

OLD TESTAMENT.

Number of Books,	39
" Chapters,	929
" Verses,	23,214
" Words,	592,439
" Letters,	2,728,100

The middle Book is Proverbs.
The middle Chapter is Job XXIX.
The middle Verse would be 2 Chronicles, XX. 17, if there were a verse more, and verse 18, if there were a verse less.
The word *and* occurs 35,543 times.
The word *Jehovah* occurs 6,855 times.
The shortest verse is 1 Chronicles, I. 25.
The 21st verse of the 7th chapter of Ezra contains all the letters of the alphabet.
The 19th of the 2 Kings and the 37th chapter of Isaiah are alike.

NEW TESTAMENT.

Number of Books, ... 87
" Chapters, ... 260
" Verses, ... 7,959
" Words, ... 181,253
" Letters, ... 838,580

The middle Book is 2 Thessalonians.
The middle Chapter is Romans XIII. if there were a chapter less, and XIV. if there were a chapter more.
The middle Verse is Acts XVII. 17.
The shortest verse is John XI. 35.

OLD AND NEW TESTAMENT.

Number of Books, ... 66
" Chapters, ... 1,189
" Verses, ... 31,173
" Words, ... 773,697
" Letters, ... 3,566,480

The middle Chapter and least in the Bible is Psalms CXVII.
The middle Verse is Psalms CXVIII. 8.
The calculator is said to have occupied *three years* of his life in forming this table!

Reported for the Hingham Journal.

PLYMOUTH COUNTY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

AGREEABLY to the announcement in last week's Journal, the Association met at the Town Hall on Friday, June 10th, and was called to order at half-past ten, by the President, Mr. Lewis Noyes, of Abington. Prayer was offered by Rev. Mr. Dyer, of Hingham. The report of the last meeting was read by the Secretary pro tem. A letter from Mr. R. Edwards, of Salem, was read, resigning his office as Secretary of the Association. A Committee of Criticism was chosen, consisting of Messrs. Hewitt and Fletcher, of Bridgewater, and Misses A. R. Ware, of North Bridgewater, C. Jacobs, of Abington, and E. Bartlett, of Bridgewater.

On motion of Mr. Tillinghast, the Association proceeded to the discussion of the best method of teaching Geography. Remarks were made by Messrs. Tillinghast, Jenks, Boyden and Hewitt, and many sound and interesting views exhibited.

At 12 o'clock the meeting adjourned to the vestry of the Orthodox Church, at which place the ladies of Centre and South Hingham had provided a bountiful collation. James S. Lewis, Esq., presided at the tables, and after a blessing had been invoked by Rev. Mr. Otherman, of N. Chelsea, ample justice was done to the rich viands with which the company were thus generously regaled.

After a few songs from the "Normal Choir" the company separated and again assembled at the Hall. The Committee of Criticism made quite a witty report, in which several of the morning speakers were somewhat severely handled, for alleged indignities committed against our vernacular, contrary to grammatical statute in such case made and provided. The morning discussion was then resumed, and Rev. Messrs. Pope, of Somerville, Otherman, of Chelsea, Messrs. Tillinghast and Boyden, of Bridgewater, and Mr. Lewis, of Hingham, severally favored the Association with their views. The importance of teaching Physical Geography in connection with Political, was warmly insisted on by some of the speakers. Some difference of opinion appeared to be entertained in regard to the utility of teaching young pupils certain facts and phenomena in Geography before they were able to comprehend fully the principles on which they rested.

At three o'clock the Association listened to an address from Rev. Mr. Pope, of Somerville. After a very happy introduction, the reverend gentleman proceeded to speak of the importance and responsibility of the teacher's office. The teacher and school occupy the middle ground between childhood and manhood. They are to assist in solving the great problem, where childhood is the material and true manhood the object.

Various influences, apart from the school and teacher, assisted in the result. School committees, books, home conversation, &c., were spoken of. Instruction at school was necessarily rudimentary. The school was at one end of the lever, and home at the other; and contrary to all dynamic rules, both ends of the lever must be raised at once.

The speaker pleaded earnestly for a nobler estimate of the teacher's calling. Teaching should be made a profession. The practice of employing those who only make teaching a stepping stone to another profession, who "keep school" simply for the dollars and cents, to pay their college bills, was spoken against with considerable severity. *Cheap* teachers ruin schools. He wished teachers to set the nobleness of their office before them, and remember that excellence, in any department, is success. *The moral* significancy of a teacher's life was spoken of, and in *this* connection the speaker, (formerly himself a resident of the *Old Colony*,) was pleased to indulge in quite a complimentary

strain of remark in reference to the general character of Plymouth teachers.

In conclusion, preparation for school, and progress in it, were earnestly enjoined on teachers, as the two great objects at which they were to aim.

We have given but a very meagre outline of this very excellent address, which abounded in valuable thought, and happy illustrations, enlivened by occasional flashes of wit and humor, and which was listened to with marked attention.

At the close of the Lecture, the Association adjourned, to meet at Loring Hall, at 8 o'clock, where a lecture was delivered to a very full audience by G. F. Thayer, Esq., of Boston. The subject of Mr. Thayer's lecture was "The Teacher an Example." It was eminently practical, and while any attempt at rhetorical display was disclaimed by the speaker, certainly contained many passages of great power. The duty of teachers to be watchful over their own habits, their manners and morals, was earnestly insisted on. They were to aim to become Christian gentlemen. Many common errors in pronunciation were pointed out, and offences against good breeding not uncommon among the best teachers, were animadverted upon. The lecture, besides being very valuable in matter, was a most beautiful example of correct enunciation.

On Saturday, the Association met at 9, A. M. Prayer was offered by Rev. Mr. Richardson. Report of the Committee of Criticism was made, and the discussion on Geography resumed. Some excellent remarks on the subject were made by Mr. Lewis, of Hingham, and others. The subject of teaching Spelling, was then taken up. Messrs. Jenks, of Middleboro', Hunt, of Newton, and Merritt, of Hingham, made remarks on the subject. The general opinion seemed to be in favor of teaching this branch by written exercises in preference to oral, from which opinion Mr. Tillinghast, of Bridgewater, was understood to dissent.* The *age* at which children should commence attending school drew out some remarks from Rev. Messrs. Stearns and Dyer, of Hingham, Rev. Mr. Walker, of Abington, and others. Mr. Jenks thought children should not enter school till at least *eight* years of age. The practice of sending *infants* to school to be confined six hours per day, and to be kept still at that, while the process of cramming their heads with incomprehensible matter, if pertinaciously persevered in, was strongly reprehended by the speakers. Rev. Mr. Walker advocated the plan of gymnasiums for young children, where the healthy development of their physical powers might be secured, instead of the present system of schools in which the mind is developed at

* *If we understood Mr. Tillinghast, he was rather in favor of a judicious blending of the two methods.*—Ed. Teacher.

a fearful expense of future ill health, from undue confinement and restricted exercise. Pending this discussion the meeting adjourned.

In the afternoon session, the first business was listening to the Critic's report, which cut right and left, in quite a merciless manner. A Committee on Resolutions, consisting of Messrs. Jenks, Boyden and Hunt, was appointed.

At 3 o'clock, the closing lecture of the session was given by Rev. J. P. Terry, of South Weymouth. The speaker dwelt much on the importance of moral education, as being the foundation of all other. Religion was the great want of the human mind, and all education should have reference to it. Parents were earnestly appealed to in regard to the moral education of their children. Thoroughness in education, the harmonious development of the whole nature, was needed. Rules should not be taught so much as principles. Knowledge should be made practical. The present condition of juvenile society showed that the manners and morals of the young were too much neglected both by parents and teachers. The lecturer closed with an earnest appeal to parents and teachers to be faithful to their obligations. The picture they were painting was for all time. Nay, its coloring would last through eternity.

After the lecture, the Committee on Resolutions reported the following, which were unanimously adopted:—

Resolved, That the thanks of this Association be tendered to the Fall River Railroad Company, for their liberality in furnishing half price tickets to persons passing over their road to the Convention.

Resolved, That the thanks of this Association be presented to Richard Edwards, Esq., our late Secretary, for the fidelity with which he has performed the numerous and arduous duties of his office.

Resolved, That the thanks of this Association be presented to Rev. A. R. Pope, Gideon F. Thayer, Esq., and Rev. J. P. Terry, for the excellent lectures with which they have favored us.

Resolved, That our hearty thanks are due to the citizens of Hingham, for their prompt and liberal action in securing for our use the very pleasant and convenient halls in which we have held our meetings, and to those citizens who gratuitously furnished the means of conveyance from the depot to the Town Hall.

Resolved, That the warmest thanks of the Association be tendered to the ladies of Centre Hingham, for the richly prepared collation furnished by them during the intermission of the first day, and likewise to the citizens generally, for the very generous hospitality extended to the members of the Association during their pleasant sojourn with them, while we regret that all who were expecting guests could not have the pleasure of entertaining them.

Resolved, That the local Committee of Arrangements have done themselves and the town great honor by the prompt and skilful manner in which they have discharged the laborious duties of their office.

The remaining time of the Association was mostly occupied by Mr. Jenks, who by request, gave a short lecture on Natural History — more particularly Entomology, a branch for which the gentleman has great enthusiasm, and which he is abundantly able to discuss. Some specimens of Coleoptera, he had just collected, were exhibited. Mr. Jenks's cabinet of natural history, at his school in Middleborough, is quite extensive and varied, and exhibits abundant proofs of his indefatigable industry and enthusiasm in this interesting study.

The hour for adjournment having arrived the assembly united in singing Old Hundred, and the session closed.

The attendance from abroad was not near so large as had been anticipated, ample provision having been made for the entertainment of at least three hundred and fifty strangers, while not near half that number were present. Those who were here were unanimous in their expressions of gratification at the attentions they received and the pleasure they derived from their visit to this ancient town. Hon. Solomon Lincoln accompanied a large number to the "Old Church," and entertained them with several interesting historical reminiscences connected with its early history, for which they would express their thanks.

We have thus given a very imperfect sketch of what was, we think, to all who attended it, a very pleasant and profitable meeting. We hope that the cause of public instruction in the town will receive a new impetus from the gathering, and that parents and teachers will take hold of the important work of education with renewed zeal, and that Hingham Schools will ere long be quoted as examples of progress and thorough instruction.

M.

Hingham, June 17th, 1853.

Resident Editors' Table.

GEORGE ALLEN, Jr., ...*Boston*,
C. J. CAPEN, ...*Dedham*, } RESIDENT EDITORS. { ELBRIDGE SMITH, *Cambridge*.
E. S. STEARNS, *W. Newton*.

SEPARATION OF THE SEXES IN SCHOOLS.

WE insert the Report of a Committee lately appointed by the Board of School Committee of the Charlestown schools, to consider the subject of the "Separation of the Sexes in Schools." It will doubtless be read with interest. We hope, however, to see the other side of the question properly presented by its advocates, in a future number of the Teacher, and would solicit the *communications* of such as may feel inclined to write *upon the subject.*

To the Chairman of the Trustees of the Charlestown Free Schools:

A majority of the Committee to whom was referred the petition of William Eager and one hundred and seventy-five others, residents in the Harvard School district, praying that "the details of the Regulations of the School Committee be so altered as to allow the girls to occupy one hall in the Harvard School-house, and the boys the other, under their respective teachers," beg leave to submit the following Report:—

As the petitioners had said in their petition that there were objections to the present arrangement of the Harvard School of a strong, serious, and decisive character, without specifying in any way what those objections were, it was decided at the first meeting of your Committee, to request the petitioners to hand in a written statement of these objections. A letter, previously prepared by the Chairman of the Committee, was accordingly addressed to Mr. William Eager, whose name was at the head of the petitioners. It was also agreed to send a circular which had been prepared by the Chairman of the Committee, to the masters of the Grammar Schools of the city, requesting, in a series of questions, their opinions of the result of the change in the arrangement of the schools. Copies of the letter to Mr. Eager, and of the circular to the masters, are herewith given, and they, together with the "brief summary of reasons," handed in by the petitioners in reply to the letter to Mr. Eager, and the answers of the several masters to the circular, are annexed hereto and made a part of this report.

In the consideration of the subject matter of the petition, the majority of your Committee have endeavored to examine candidly the arguments in favor of, and those against, the present arrangement of the Grammar Schools in this city, and of the old arrangement, to which, for convenience' sake, they have given the names of the Mixed System, and the Separate System; and they have come to their conclusion partly from those reasons which the nature of the case must suggest to every one; partly from their personal experience in schools and in the oversight of schools, and partly from the authority and experience of teachers and friends of education. This authority and experience must be coëxtensive with the spread of education and the existence of teachers. But this it would be impossible, even if it were desirable, to obtain. That which the majority of your Committee would now present to the Board, consists of the replies of the masters of the Grammar Schools in this city to the circular of your Committee, and the answers of some of the masters of the Salem schools, to a communication from a member of your Committee. The reply of a gentleman of Boston, of much experience in education, to a similar communication, is also given. It should, however, be stated that the only *written* authority of teachers, &c., before the *whole* Committee, was that of the masters of the Grammar Schools in this city, although the substance of the opinions of the Salem teachers, as derived from personal interviews with them, was mentioned in committee. The *letters, the* replies to which are herewith presented for the information *of the Board*, and connected by the majority of the Committee with *their report*, were addressed to the Salem teachers after the last meet-

ing of the whole Committee, in order to present their opinions to the Board in an authentic and definite form; and letters were sent to the Salem teachers particularly, because mixed schools have been for a long time in operation in that city, a place in many respects like Charlestown.

As these letters are all before your Board, and as they will be read for your information, the majority of your Committee do not think it necessary to state in detail the different means of information which the different teachers have had, or the different conclusions to which they arrive. The majority of your Committee would only say generally, and once for all, that in their opinion, both as respects more extended sources of information and a larger experience, the weight of authority is decidedly against the mixed system, and in favor of the separate system.

The arguments adduced in favor of the mixed system are, that it favors discipline, making the schools more easy to be governed;—that it stimulates both sexes to exertion and increases the amount of study, and that it renders both sexes more chaste and circumspect in their language, and more attentive to their dress and personal appearance.

This statement embraces, so far as the majority of your Committee recollect, the arguments in favor of the mixed system, and these they purpose to examine briefly, in detail.

And first as regards discipline. It cannot be said that heretofore the discipline has been bad in the schools of Charlestown, or that good order is not now kept in the schools of Boston, and of other places where the separate system prevails. The first thing to be taught in any school is obedience. The master who does not teach obedience, or who fails in government, is not fit to be a master. Obedience must be taught as a fixed principle and rule, and must be required unhesitatingly and implicitly of all scholars, whether boys or girls, whether in mixed or in separate schools. The argument, then, that the mixed system favors discipline, has little or no weight in settling the question at issue, for perfect discipline can be kept, and is kept in separate schools, and the difficulties in the way of discipline are such that a teacher who could not keep a separate school in discipline, could not control a mixed school. Indeed, the argument does not state that the mixed system is *necessary* to discipline, but only that it *favors* discipline. On this point, the majority of your Committee believe that the mixed system renders the discipline more difficult, for two reasons. It gives incitement and opportunity for the commission of offences which are the inevitable result of the union of the sexes in the same room, that would never be thought of in separate schools, and at the same time it makes the punishment of all offences more difficult, from the different modes of discipline necessary for the two sexes. If a boy and girl commit the same offence, it may be necessary to use the rod upon the boy, while a different punishment would produce the desired effect upon the girl. If the teacher makes a difference between the sexes in the punishment of the same offence, he is accused of partiality, and the punishment loses most of its effect; while if he makes the flesh of the girl quiver *under the* rod or the ferule, he is liable to be charged *with undue severity.* The majority of your Committee would subject

neither the discipline of the schools to such peril, nor the masters to such an unpleasant alternative.

Secondly. The argument that it stimulates both sexes to exertion and increases the amount of study, is thought to be untrue in its full extent, and it is considered one that, from the necessary evils consequent upon it, should have no decisive influence in favor of the mixed system. The argument must be founded upon this,—that the best scholars of a class help on the poorer ones, and that as a general rule, girls of a certain age are quicker to learn and better scholars than boys of the same age, and so, if put in a class of boys, will aid the class. The principle here stated is undoubtedly correct, but it is incorrectly applied. Good scholars in a class do help the poorer ones; but it is not necessary that all the good scholars should be girls, and that the poor ones should be boys; nor is it invariably the case that the good scholars are girls and that the poor ones are boys. The working of the principle is as satisfactory and as advantageous, when the two grades of scholars in a class are of the same sex, as where they are of different sexes; and the reason, in the opinion of the majority of your Committee, why the two grades of scholars may as well be of the same sex, is, that any peculiar influence of the different sexes that may be relied on as the immediate consequence of the mixed system, will fail when the novelty of the affair is worn off, and when the sexes are accustomed to each other's presence from their first entrance into the primary schools. But there is another side to this question. In the same proportion that the boys are helped, the girls will be injured, for the influence is reciprocal; and where the good scholars help the poor ones, the poor ones are a drawback and a weight upon the advancement of the good ones. And, in the opinion of the majority of your Committee, no advantage should be sought for the one sex which brings with it an equal and corresponding evil to the other sex.

The argument that the mixed system makes both sexes more chaste and circumspect in their language, must have reference to the deportment of the sexes *out* of the school-room, if it has reference to any thing; for *in* the school-room the only language permitted is that of the recitation, where answers are given to the questions of the master; and it is not easily seen how, in the recitations in schools under the separate system, under the eye and in the hearing of the master, there can be any improprieties of speech or manner which the presence of pupils of the other sex would be necessary to correct or improve. But if the argument has reference to the language of the play-ground or street, the majority of your Committee have not yet been shown how the intermixture of the sexes makes either sex more chaste or circumspect in its language or manners while engaged in the rough plays of thoughtless childhood.

So in regard to the remaining reasons assigned in favor of the mixed system. If the children of the different sexes are neat and attentive to their personal appearance because they are to be seen by the other sex, and for this reason only, a low and unworthy inducement *is held out* to the sexes for the formation of these important habits, *while, as* the principle can act only in the presence of the two sexes, *it must be* inoperative when they are separated, and the opposite habits

might be formed. Besides, it is by no means admitted that habits of neatness cannot be formed in separate schools, and that they have not been so formed in previous years. It is not known that there has been any complaint upon this subject. The majority of your Committee are of opinion that under the mixed system there would be but few, if any, instances in these respects, and they think that it may well be questioned whether the feeling that makes boys or girls, who when in separate schools were untidy and unattentive to their personal appearance, suddenly go to the other extreme, does not arise from a disposition to gallantry which no parent could wish to see fostered in our public schools.

If, as the majority of your Committee believe, the above opinions and reasoning are correct, the arguments adduced in favor of the mixed system are inconclusive, and open to objections which utterly destroy their weight.

But besides, there are objections to the mixed system which the majority of your Committee believe the petitioners have rightly described in their "brief summary of reasons," as being of a strong, serious and decisive character. The majority of your Committee would refer generally to that "brief summary," and will also briefly state the objections to the mixed system which press most strongly and decisively upon their minds.

And first in respect to instruction. The difficulties which present themselves in regard to discipline have been heretofore stated—and now the objections are given in respect to instruction purely. In the opinion of the majority of your Committee a wise plan of education points out a different course of instruction for the different sexes. They believe with the petitioners that girls should not be instructed as though they were to be our "future engineers, merchants, navigators, lawgivers and rulers," but that they should be so taught as to perform appropriately the peculiar duties of their sex. The majority of your Committee do not think it necessary to enlarge upon this point; for they suppose that its truth is generally admitted. Nor do they consider that by the establishment of the High School for advanced scholars, the force of this argument will apply in its full force to a large class of scholars who will, from necessity, receive all their education in the Grammar Schools. And if the course of instruction for the different sexes ought to be different, the separate system is the only one that can be used to advantage. Another difficulty in the schools under the mixed system, will arise from the nature of some of the studies taught. It is thought to be the universal opinion that Physiology, for instance, should be taught to some extent at least in all the Grammar Schools. No prudent teacher would venture to instruct boys and girls in this subject in the same class, or even in the same room.

Secondly, in respect to morals. Here the majority of your Committee think that the effect of the mixed system is decidedly bad. In small schools in towns of sparse population, and even in country villages where the scholars and the parents of the scholars are all known to each other, the evils may be less felt, and more easily corrected. But in the large *schools of* densely populated maritime cities, which it *is alike the boast and glory* of our Common School system are open to

all, where children of every grade and those subject to all sorts of influences at home meet together, the evils necessary to the mixed system are greatly increased. The majority of your Committee will state what some of these moral evils are. No one who knows boys, it is thought can deny, that, as a general rule, by the time they reach the age of twelve years, and with many at a much earlier period, they have become familiar with the common words of vulgarity, obscenity and profanity—with the last perhaps to a less extent. How far this evil extends, in reference to the first two vices, to the other sex no definite opinion is ventured, but it is feared that the contamination is more deeply spread than is generally supposed. It is also believed to be true that a large proportion of the words of vulgarity and obscenity have reference to sexual differences; and that these words are nowhere spoken more freely and unblushingly than when children are collected in large numbers as at schools, and they rarely collect in so large numbers elsewhere. The constant, daily presence of the other sex is continually recalling these sexual peculiarities, and the impure ideas associated with them. And certainly in the opinion of the majority of your Committee, neither sex should be unnecessarily exposed to this peril. The impurity will exist, it is to be feared, in separate schools, but it may slumber at times, while in schools under the mixed system, the flame is constantly fed. These evils exist even when no improper words or communications pass between the sexes, and when such communication is had the evil is increased. That such communication is had, even in spite of the vigilance of the most faithful master, it is not doubted. Discoveries are made by the teacher rarely, while the successful instances of deception are known, if not to the school at large, at least to the little coterie around the wrong doer. The effect of these illicit communications both upon discipline and morals is equally demoralizing.

There are other objections to the mixed system which, from their delicacy, cannot be urged in a written report with the precision and distinctness to which they are entitled. The Board cannot fail to perceive, however, that embarrassment to both teachers and pupils may arise from causes over which nature alone has control.

The above conclusions of themselves would be sufficient to convince the majority of your Committee that the prayer of the petitioners should be granted. They also present another consideration for a return to the old or separate system, which, in their opinion, would be conclusive in a case even more nicely balanced than the present, and that is, the wishes, temperately and strongly stated, of so large a proportion of the residents in the Harvard District. Whatever evil may result from the mixed system, will fall on them through their children, and their warning voice should certainly be heard, when they would attempt to avert the impending danger.

The majority of your Committee, therefore, recommend that the prayer of the petitioners be granted, and that the boys occupy one room of the Harvard School house, and the girls the other, under their *respective* teachers.

Respectfully submitted.

CHAS. W. MOORE, } Majority of the
GEO. P. SANGER, } Committee.

Charlestown, May 24th, 1848.

We insert the following letter of a teacher to the parents of his pupils. We think the plan a good one. It speaks volumes in favor of the devotedness of the teacher, and it will, no doubt, be attended with deserved success. Let others follow the example.

To the Patrons of the ——— ——— School.

My object in addressing you, is to seek your hearty coöperation in carrying out my plans for the improvement of those committed to my care.

The interests of your children are as dear to you as life itself, and next to yourselves, he who occupies the position of their teacher, if he is of the right spirit, can do most toward advancing their interests.

The earnest desire which I feel for their advancement and the reputation of the school, induces me to call your attention to the *absolute importance* of *regular* and *punctual* attendance.

Those who are absent must *lose* the instruction imparted to the others, or else the classes must be retarded, while the teacher goes over the same ground again, as a special favor to the absentee; hence the absence of a child for a *single half-day*, is a matter of *no little consequence*.

Every tardy scholar must disturb the school in entering, and call their attention from study nearly a minute, making in the aggregate, nearly *half an hour*.

It is estimated that the time of children ten or twelve years old, in school, is worth *one dollar per day*, and out of school only *ninepence!*

In view, then, of the good of the school, and the importance of training your children to correct and steady habits, will you not determine that they shall be sent *regularly?* and will you not encourage the learning of at least one lesson *at home?* and, moreover, will you not encourage all our hearts, and cheer us in our arduous toils in pursuit of knowledge by your *frequent visits* to the school-room?

Hoping that these few suggestions may be of use in securing unity of action in our efforts to promote the true interests of the school,

I remain your and your children's friend,

——— ———.

"MAPLETON, OR MORE WORK FOR THE MAINE LAW."

THIS is a novel, which, as its name implies, and as its author in the preface states, is a "contribution to a great reform in morals and legislation." It presents many graphic pictures, and the story is extremely interesting, and is well interwoven with arguments which make it a valuable as well as an interesting work. We have read it with as much satisfaction as we took in poring over the pages of "Uncle Tom." If its scenes are not so highly wrought as many in Mrs. Stowe's work, it certainly *appeals more to* the reason, and, we think, is calculated *to do much good in its* chosen sphere. Jenks, Hickling & Swan, are the publishers.

A HIGH SCHOOL ASTRONOMY, *in which the Descriptive, Physical and Practical are combined, with special reference to the wants of Academies and Seminaries of Learning. By Hiram Mattison, A. M., Late Professor of Natural History and Astronomy in the Falley Seminary.*

We have met with no work for schools which affords so great a variety of useful knowledge on the subject of astronomy as this. The subjects are presented to the young student in a manner perfectly intelligible, and in language calculated to produce vivid and permanent impressions, and are illustrated with numerous diagrams well suited to the blackboard. The author has diversified his work by frequent reference to the views of the most celebrated writers on this and on kindred subjects, and has adapted it to the most modern stage of discovery.

It is printed in large type, an advantage of no ordinary character in school-books of the present day, but to which every publisher should pay due regard, as we are quite certain that committees and teachers, knowing its importance, are not apt to overlook it. The work may be found at Ide & Dutton's, 106 Washington Street, Boston.

THE TEACHER AND THE PARENT. *A Treatise upon Common School Education; containing practical suggestions to teachers and parents. By Charles Northend, A. M., Superintendent of Public Schools, Danvers, Mass.; late, and for many years, principal of the Epes School, Salem, Mass. Published by Jenks, Hickling & Swan.*

WE may anticipate for this work a wide circulation, among teachers and friends of education. The extensive and high reputation of its author, indeed, will bespeak for it more than pen of ours can do. It is a work of about three hundred and twenty pages, in good size type, and presents a very pleasant appearance to the eye, as well as the work noticed on the preceding page, both of which, for their neat appearance, do great credit to the enterprising publishers.

Mr. Northend's book will prove interesting to all, and of great benefit to teachers, especially as a chart for those just commencing to engage in the profession. As a *vade mecum*, it will prove a very pleasant companion, for its pages are filled with the results of a large experience presented in a very pleasing form. We are glad to find that the author, in furnishing to teachers *so useful* a work, has not neglected the *suaviter in modo*, and *has here* and there thrown in a pleasant anecdote, which will *enliven its* character, and make it all the more acceptable. We

shall have frequent occasion to refer to it hereafter. In closing this short notice, we would assure our readers that a perusal of the work will more than realize to them the truth of all we have attempted to say in its favor. Appended to the volume will be found a catalogue of educational works suitable for the teacher's library.

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

THE twenty-fourth annual meeting will be held at New Haven, Conn., on the 16th, 17th and 18th of August, 1853.

ORDER OF EXERCISES.

Tuesday.—The Institute will commence the session at 10 o'clock, A. M. After the introductory exercises, a prize essay will be read, "On the means of producing a Symmetrical Development of the Mental Faculties."

At 3 o'clock, P. M., a lecture by J. D. Philbrick, Principal of the State Normal School, New Britain, Conn.

At 7½ P. M., a lecture by F. T. Russell, of Hartford, on "Elocution."

Wednesday.—At 9 A. M., a lecture by Prof. Krusi, of Appenzell, Switzerland, late Professor in the London Home and Colonial Normal Seminary, on "The character of Pestalozzi, and his efforts in the cause of Education."

3 P. M., a prize essay.

7½ P. M., a lecture by Lowell Mason, "On teaching vocal music according to the Principles of Pestalozzi."

Thursday.—9 A. M. Second lecture by Lowell Mason.

3 P. M. Lecture by Henry Barnard, of Hartford, "Practical Lessons to be drawn from an Educational Tour in Europe."

7 P. M. Lecture by Prof. Guyot, of Cambridge, "Method of Teaching Geography."

The Committee recommend a recess of fifteen minutes for social intercourse during each day session, and that the entire afternoon of Thursday, after the lecture, be devoted to the same purpose.

Discussions will succeed the several lectures on topics suggested by them, or on other subjects preferred by the Institute.

Teachers and friends of education generally are invited to attend and participate in the deliberations.

Ladies who attend the meetings may expect the usual accommodations.

Railroad tickets from Boston to New Haven and back, will *be furnished in Boston*, by W. D. Ticknor, 135 Washington st.,

at half price, good from Saturday, 13th, to Tuesday the 23d of August. Also, from *Worcester* and *Springfield* on the same terms at the ticket offices.

Friends of the Institute who may receive this notice in season, are requested to call the attention of the community to the subject through the press in their vicinity.

SOLOMON ADAMS,
Chairman Com. Arrangements.

CHAS. E. VALENTINE, *Secretary.*

☞ Notice of the place of meeting will be published in the Boston Journal and the Daily Traveller, and in New Haven papers.

PRIZE ESSAYS.

The following Prizes for original Essays are offered by the Massachusetts Teachers' Association :—

To the members of the Association, for the best Essay, on either of the following subjects, a prize of *twenty dollars.*

1. "The importance of increasing the number of Female Teachers qualified to give instruction in the Higher Departments of Education."
2. "The Evils and Remedies of Whispering, or Communicating, in School."

To the female teachers of the State, for the best Essay, on either of the following subjects, a prize of *twenty dollars.*

1. "Best Method of Conducting a Primary School."
2. "Thoroughness in Teaching."

The Essays must be forwarded to the Secretary, *Charles J. Capen, Esq., Latin School, Boston,* on or before the 15th of October. Each Essay should be accompanied by a sealed envelope, enclosing the name of the writer. The envelopes accompanying the unsuccessful Essays will not be opened. The prizes will be awarded by an impartial Committee; but no prize will be awarded to an Essay that is not deemed worthy of one. The successful Essays will be regarded as the property of the Association.

W. H. WELLS, *President.*

Newburyport, April 18, 1853.

THE

MASSACHUSETTS TEACHER.

Vol. VI, No. 9.] W. W. MITCHELL, Editor of this Number. [Sept. 1853

SELF-CONTROL.

"He that ruleth his spirit is better than he that taketh a city."

By self-control, I do not mean merely suppressing outbursts of passion, but entire obedience to our better judgment and reason in all the conduct of life. Whatever our judgment and reason bid us do, we must do: whenever they bid us go, we must go: and whenever they bid us stop, we must stop.

The great battle of life is *within*, between the reason and the passions and propensities. He who is victor *here*, takes higher rank among heroes, than he who conquers a city, omniscient wisdom being judge. Achilles, at the seige of Troy, is no compeer for the humble peasant who has gained a conquest over his passions in the hour of temptation, and brought all his faculties into subjection to his reason.

The ordinary external struggles of life are comparative trifles in themselves. It matters little how they result. The ambitious man gathers up his resources for a mighty enterprise—it may be better that he be disappointed. Embarrassment blocks up the way of the man of business, and he summons all his energy to remove it—it may be best that he should fail. Whatever may be the result of such struggles, the combatant may come forth from them with all the noble qualities of his manhood unimpaired. But when the passions are aroused, and take the field against reason, clamoring imperiously for indulging, the contest is for life. The stake is not a mere transient external advantage, but *manhood itself*, with all its heaven-bestowed endowments. "That *lost*, all is lost!" When passion has conquered and *become* master,—what have you left?—a brute,

nay worse, a melancholy wreck of what was once a man, the noblest work of God—a glorious empire in anarchy and ruin.

"Gnothi seauton"—"Know thyself"—was the noble inscription written over the door of the Delphic Temple, where mortals were wont to seek the counsel of the gods. *Govern thyself*, would be a nobler inscription—as much superior as the teachings of Him who came from Heaven, to the philosophy of ancient Greece.

The young should be habitually and constantly trained to this *one great duty, self-control.* How shall it be done?

The teacher must first train himself. He should stand before his school, day after day, a *model* of self-control. Never should his pupil see him neglect his duty, yield to a difficulty, flinch from an unpleasant task, or give loose reign to his passions. Example in this thing will be tenfold more powerful than advice merely. Let *him* be thus firm, resolute and uniform, and his power over those about him will be like that of the sun over the lesser orbs of the solar system. They will yield a far more prompt and cheerful obedience to this silent, unpretending influence, than to any ostentatious display of authority. The mightiest influences over matter and mind are imperceptible and noiseless. As electricity, by induction, without spark or report, diffuses itself, and brings surrounding bodies under its mysterious influence, so the *model teacher*, by the silent power of a faultless example, shall make a model school. In electrotype, metals in solution, and therefore invisible, are so uniformly deposited on an immersed model, that a copy is produced so exact that it cannot be distinguished from the original, in form, though of a different metal. The teacher—if I may so speak, is surrounded by a moral atmosphere, in which his whole character is held in solution, and is transferred, by an invisible process, to his pupils, making them, in character and spirit, copies and counterparts of himself.

Brother teacher! if these things be so, are you all that you should be or can be in respect to self-control? Do you command yourself, and insist upon perfect obedience? If you do, others will obey you. Scrutinize your course for a single term, with an eye that can discern a fault even in self.

When a spirit of insubordination manifests itself in one or many, do you hold the reins with a steady hand, and look coolly around for the very best influences and appliances to suppress and eradicate it? Do you not sometimes chastise the offenders "in hot haste," giving no thought to removing the causes of the evil? It is better to pluck up than to lop off. It is of trifling consequence to dress and heal a single sore when the *sources* of life are diseased and corrupt. Do you not sometimes *give the* blow in the wrong place, because you do not keep

entirely cool, suffering the real culprit to escape? One such mistake may change the entire feeling of your school towards you, and send forth a moral miasma that shall poison your influence and neutralize your power. He who would rule successfully, must not be unjust, even by mistake. At least, his mistakes must be few.

Again, we may train our pupils to self-control, by more positive and direct methods. On entering a school, a teacher may easily make his pupils *see* and *feel* that *they should do nothing to disturb their fellow pupils or to attract their attention, during the sessions of the school.* Let a clear statement of this general proposition suffice. Be guarded that you do not descend to details, and give specific rules and regulations. By giving them only general principles for their conduct, you make it necessary, at once, for them to fall back upon their own judgments and consciences. Be sure to hold them there. Never drive stakes and draw cords and make paths, and say "walk here, and step there" until you are forced to it by the utter recklessness of your pupil. You might as well handcuff an innocent man for the purpose of training him to an honest life. It will do to put those animals in traces and leading strings, which are always to remain and labor there, but not *those*, whose future career is to be governed entirely by their own wills.

As you proceed in your work, you will observe every variety of character and conduct, and you will find occasion for the exercise of much patience and the performance of much labor. You will probably find less system and more disorder, for a time, than you would under a more despotic rule. Be it so; you might have better order still by tying every one to a post and gagging them, but you would hardly expect thus to fit them for self-government in the varying circumstances of life.

One will forget a pencil or a book, and will communicate with a neighbor to get one — thus removing the evil consequences of one fault by committing another. A second pupil will be aroused by some pleasant memony or bright idea, and forgetting or disregarding your requirement, communicate it to a friend. A third, brimful and running over with a love of fun, will play off some pleasant joke or trick, such as shall throw your own *risibles* into uncontrollable agitation. Another, not comprehending and applying general principles readily, will undertake to justify a particular action by assuring you that he didn't know that you had made any rule against pinching. Still another will tell you, perhaps, that he kicked John because John kicked him or tried to. Now these are the sober realities of most school-rooms, more frequent in some than others, and every teacher must meet and deal with them.

A smart ratan, briskly wielded, would dispose of all these

cases quickly and easily. Probably, it would produce immediate reformation. But it would be a ratan reformation, not a moral one, and it must be sustained and perpetuated by a ratan influence. Very likely, the teacher would win laurels, as an efficient and successful disciplinarian, provided that he did not flog some popular pupil or some popular man's son.

But how stands the matter of self-control? What have you done for the character? What, for the *future*, both in school and in the world? Why, just this—you have taught your pupils to keep a sharp look-out for ratans and other instruments of torture, and so to conduct as to escape their inflictions. Now, I freely admit that this is better than nothing—a decided gain upon utter recklessness, but it is *not* the best thing.

In each case, separately and *privately*, you should address the reason and conscience of the pupil with so much particularity, that he shall clearly see the wrong and condemn himself. This done, employ such persuasives to a correct deportment as you may deem necessary, and then under these personal influences, give him a second opportunity to test his power of self-control. If you arouse him to an effort to correct his deportment, because he sees it to be wrong, even though he may not entirely succeed, you have done the noblest deed that mortals are ever permitted to do. You have given an upward and heavenward impulse to an immortal spirit. You have, if I may be permitted the figure, established an *agency* in his own soul, always present and ready to warn him against errors in the future. You have planted a living, abiding principle in his better nature, which shall develop itself in a well-directed life, when the particular occasion and yourself, perhaps, shall have been forgotten. Is not this better than the smart of the ratan and its common sequence, an irritated and revengeful spirit?

Such cases should not be neglected. If they succeed to any extent in reforming their conduct, show a lively interest in their success, and strengthen and encourage them to still higher efforts and nobler victories. Cherish and cultivate this germ of virtue with assiduous care. If your pupil prove perverse and intractable, be patient and earnest in your endeavors to reclaim him, for vast interests are at stake. But if, at last, you come to the ratan, make him feel that he plucks down retribution on his own head. Such a pupil seems to me to occupy the position of a convict in chains. The good of others demands his punishment, when his own reform seems nearly hopeless.

There is a class of faults in all schools, which may be styled negative faults. You will see them in such expressions as these: "I didn't think," "I didn't mean to," "I couldn't *learn the* lesson," and the like, which are produced as excuses for negligence, slackness or positive disobedience. These are

often difficult and trying cases to manage, because these apologies are presented as sound and current reasons for delinquencies, and the pupil is surprised to see them thrown back as spurious and worthless. "Why!" he exclaims, "am I to blame when I didn't think!" Didn't think! "ay, there's the rub." It was his own especial business to *think*. His thinking must be done, and nobody else can do it for him.

Although there may be constitutional differences in individuals, these "I can't and I forgot" pupils are mostly made so by habit, and therefore the evil may be cured or prevented. They may be taught to command and control their minds and memories, as well as their hands and tongues.

When a pupil declares that he can't do what is required of him, be sure that he can, and then put him under sufficient pressure to make him do it. In nine cases out of ten, "I can't" means nothing more than, "I do not wish to make the effort." If you follow such a pupil closely, and show him by his own experience that these hard things will and *do* yield to steady application, and that "I can't" is the son of laziness and the father of a thriftless and shiftless life, you may drive him from his miserable habit. See to it that he *does* whatever he *ought* to do, and then make use of his own experience to shame him out of his false excuses. If you succeed in making him a prompt, resolute and careful pupil, your victory is worth more than the taking of a city. You have made a living man from a dead sluggard. You have created an active force *within* him, which shall impel him to a prompt discharge of life's duties, when before, he only acted from *external* pressure.

It is not well to let a man or a boy stand at a distance and look long at a difficult task. *Distance* lends no enchantment to such a view, but *action* does. Those tasks which require a vigorous exercise of the faculties, become most intensely interesting as the pupil proceeds and finds himself battering down obstructions and making conquests.

Forgetful pupils need to be dealt with as well as reasoned with. Allow no indulgence to their besetting sin. Always connect some inconvenience or extra labor with cases of forgetfulness. If a requirement or duty has been forgotten, require its performance at an extra hour.

If a slate, pencil, or book has been forgotten, let them suffer for it, just as they would in business, by going to the woods without an axe, or to the field without a hoe. Above all do not patronize and encourage this miserable habit, by giving permission to *borrow*, thus relieving them from the inconvenience, and teaching them that it is just about as well to forget as to remember. Resist their special pleadings and give them trouble enough to *make an abiding impression*. I once met a man at a railroad

depot, who had come seven miles to take the cars for a long journey, and found, a few minutes before starting, that his wallet and money were at home. He was certainly a picture of trouble as the cars puffed away, leaving him to fret about a bad memory, and get his money. Such a habit is an enormous evil, full of mischief and perplexity, and should be treated with rigor in that period of life when it may be broken up.

Let the whole management of the young be such as to cultivate a habit of thoughtfulness and carefulness, and to demand a constant exercise of their own judgments. We do too much for the young, and require them to do too little. We even go so far as to relieve them from the irksome task of doing their own every-day thinking and remembering. We lift from them every burden of responsibility, and delude ourselves with the belief that we are promoting their happiness and well-being. Heaven save my child from such kindness. No wonder, that the multitudes of the rising generation are frivolous pleasure-seekers, unsuccessful business men or idle vagabonds. They are trained up for just such a life—yes, *trained* not *taught merely*, but *drilled practically* for it.

I will close this article by entering my solemn protest against this prevalent practice of bartering solid acquisitions and real strength of character, for present ease and gratification—against that false tenderness and fondness which shrink from imposing on the young, the crosses of a rigid discipline, and the burdens of a thorough self-culture, and thus doom them to hopeless inefficiency, disappointment, and wretchedness, when *forced* into the stern conflicts of life.

ENERGY.

"The longer I live in the world, the more certain I am that the great difference between men, the great and the insignificant, is *energy*—invincible determination; an honest purpose once fixed, and then, *victory!* This quality can do every thing that can be done in this world; and no talents, no circumstances, no opportunity will make a man without it."—GOETHE.

I BELIEVE that most men, especially the young, expect too much from, and depend too much upon circumstances. In early life, it seemed to me a very hard case that I must earn every dollar to be expended in educating myself, and I looked upon the sons of affluence with envy; but, now, in taking a calm review of the past, I see clearly that the severest labors and trials of my life have been most profitable to me. It has been *my misfortune* to experience too few of them. I believe it to *be a fact*, confirmed by experience and observation, that what *are usually* deemed adverse circumstances, are in reality most

favorable to the development of individual character. We see striking proof of this in the history of nations,—as in the Jews, Greeks, Puritans, &c.

Yet, with these facts before them, we see multitudes of men pining and complaining about their circumstances, and folding their hands in idleness. The greatest blessing that could possibly come to such men, would be *real adversity*, enough to wake them up and compel them to bestir themselves.

Men are naturally lazy, and when in easy circumstances are very likely to keep easy. Necessity alone will arouse them to the highest degree of activity. How many sit quietly down in the lap of circumstances, to be dandled on to success or failure, with as much complacency as if Omnipotence itself had put them there, and was holding them there! Omnipotence does no such thing, but *one thing* it has done—it has endowed the human mind with powers to mould and fashion the ordinary circumstances of life as it will. He who will not exercise these powers, will be the sport of circumstances. He who will, may stake out his own road in life, and travel in it.

The teacher needs a strong and abiding faith in this power. He does not work upon material substances, where the same method will answer a thousand times, and one triumph will suffice for a life-time; but upon mind—subtle and variable, ever subject to new influences from without and new impulses from within. Every hour, it may require a different treatment and new appliances. To meet it and manage it, in these ever changing phases, he must be awake and active. He must manage it, or be managed by it. In order to progress up stream, he must row, and row lustily too. When he gets tired of this and concludes that it is more agreeable to lie on his oars and float down with the current, he will not need to look or listen long, before he will see the foam of the rapids, and hear the roar of the cataract, below him.

There is no hope for such a man. The best thing for him, is to get ashore as soon as possible. Without a figure, the teacher who has not the nerve and the spirit to grapple with difficulties, and to devote himself, soul and body, to his work, had better step out of the profession, for failure and disgrace are before him. The teacher who lacks energy, may be conscious of some defect or fault in his school, such as a want of thoroughness, or of system, and may shrink from the difficulty and labor of reforming it. He may sit down with the feeling that he is doing well enough, and it is not worth while to introduce any disturbing element to ruffle the waters, even though they be a little stagnant. Why, man! arouse yourself. What *should* be done, *must* be done,—and *you must do it*. Your pupils are looking on, and will go and do likewise. Let them see you undertake

with steadiness and energy *whatever* is essential to the highest success of your school, and let them see you accomplish it too, even though difficulties rise before you like mountains, and they will be stimulated by your example to undertake and perform the severest tasks. If you add to this the force of a teacher's authority, you have the best possible stimulus at your command to arouse the indolent or encourage the timid. If your pupils are accustomed to see *you* grapple with difficulties thus, they will certainly be more likely to do it. If *you* take every thing easily on the well-enough principle, they will often find it very convenient, to take *you* as a *model.*

Well-enough is a bad word anywhere, but a most mischievous word in a school-room. It is really more to be dreaded than "*I can't,*" for "I can't" has a definite meaning, and an opposite, but *well-enough* is neither one thing nor another. It is the skim-milk of life, and awfully blue at that. You may heat it and cool it, and churn it, and it is skim-milk still. The cream is not there. Well-enough leaves a farm half-cultivated, a work of art half-finished, a subject half-investigated, a lesson half-learned and a rogue half-whipped. Banish this word from your school. Let it find no place either with teachers or pupils. *Perfection* is *well-enough*, and nothing short of it.

Again, suppose a case of disorder or viciousness arises which requires nerve and promises difficulty, there is then a special demand for *energy* and *firmness.* The teacher may be strongly tempted to shut his eyes to the fact or to the evidence of its enormity, and pass around it, leaving it unpunished to breed more mischief and to stand as a bulwark, behind which, rebels may thereafter entrench themselves. Such shrinking and slackness is consummate folly. Do not delude yourself with the thought that it will be easier to let it pass. Meet it coolly and promptly, and do in a single hour, what, if neglected, may cost you weeks of annoyance, and in the end, your authority over your school. This pretending not to see mischief is an acknowledgment of your own weakness or irresolution, which pupils are not slow to discover. In every calling, human life is a series of toils and struggles or a miserable failure. Since the voice of man's offended Creator uttered the stern decree, "By the sweat of thy brow shalt thou eat thy bread," no man may fold his hands in idleness and float listlessly down the stream of life with impunity. Thousands have tried it and have lived to lament their folly, in want, disgrace, degradation and wretchedness. Our health, our happiness, our inward peace, our purity of character, our external necessities, and all that is valuable and ennobling in intellectual and moral acquisitions, imperiously *call on us to* obey this decree of Heaven. The happy man is *the toiling* and energetic man. The successful man is the

energetic man. The poor sluggard, who will not plough by reason of the cold, shall beg, and have nothing but destitution and wretchedness. It is a monstrous mistake that inactivity is happiness—that there is more enjoyment in evading toils and struggles than in meeting them. O man! it is not so easy to cheat the Omniscient One. Success is the child of energy. Every young man should expect to accomplish great things, if he possess patience and energy. He must inevitably rise to eminence, if steadily and resolutely he devote himself to a complete performance of present duty. There is no *perhaps*, no uncertainty about it. No more certainly will an edifice rise to completion by laying stone after stone upon a firm foundation, than a young man to eminence in his calling, by devoting himself, day after day, and year after year, to a complete performance of the duties of that calling. What though his acquisitions be limited?—an indomitable energy will collect together and garner up the vast treasures of knowledge which lie around him, ever accessible to persistent toil. What though his station be obscure?—there are delectable positions, high up the mount of usefulness and honor, waiting for the man who has sufficient energy to climb to them. What though difficulties block up his way?—untiring energy will remove them. It has led an army over the Alps, spanned an unknown ocean, made a glorious land of a gloomy wilderness, and broken the shackles forged by the strong arm of oppression. It has made men of humble origin, leaders of armies, champions of freedom, and rulers of nations. In the beautiful words of our poet, "This quality can do any thing that can be done in this world, and no talents, no circumstances, no opportunity will make a man without it.

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THE EYE AND THE EAR IN ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

NO. II.

We have spoken of the part performed by the eye in the acquisition of a knowledge of orthography, and in the application of that knowledge. We have seen that the superiority of the method by writing over the oral—a superiority admitted by all—arises from the fact that in the former, the eye, which is to be the judge in all actual spelling in distinction from that which is merely recitative, is continually appealed to; while in the latter, the appeal is made to the ear. The principle may be extended to punctuation. How many candidates for a teacher's certificate will write a sentence, or a number of sentences, dictated to them, and make neither comma nor period, colon or dash, from

the beginning to the end. And when their attention is directed to the omission, they will say with great simplicity, that they did not know as you wished the pauses put in. As if the sentence were a sentence without them, any more than a number of words articulated, without any inflections, would constitute a spoken sentence. They could define all the punctuation marks, and tell the pupil how many he must stop to count in each case, —a most miserably artificial mode of explaining the object and use of pauses; but evidently they have no knowledge of them as constituent elements of written language.

Let us now examine the method of teaching to read, and ascertain which needs special attention in this department of instruction, the eye or the ear. As has been already stated, the question should not be, which of a number of modes has an individual teacher found to be most successful in his own experience, but what mode can be shown to be best adapted to the attainment of the end. A particular teacher has been more successful with one than with another, perhaps because he understands it better; or it may be because he likes it better, and so, unwittingly perhaps, he gives it a fairer trial. The question should be decided according to some principle. That method will in the end be the most successful which can be supported by the best reasons. We shall never make progress if each teacher's individual experience is to decide every question.

There are two kinds of reading, the silent and the audible. By the first we gain information from the printed page; by the second, we communicate that information to others who are within the sound of our voice. Both require that the reader should know the name of each word the instant it meets his eye. Whether the reading be silent or audible, the knowledge is conveyed to the mind of the reader through the medium of the *eye*. In audible reading, after the mind has gained the knowledge by the eye, the voice communicates it to the hearer. The ear of the reader is not employed in either method. In one case the eye does it all; in the other the eye does a part and the voice a part. The name of the word then should be known at sight. The eye at a glance takes in the various letters composing the word, and the order in which they are arranged. With this visible appearance of the letters, the name of the word should be indissolubly connected. Before the child can read fluently, he must be able to call the words at sight, and not stop to ask the teacher, or to spell them.

All this is so manifest that our readers may wonder that we *deem it* worth stating. But all principles are simple, that is, all *correct* principles. Let us be careful that we do not run counter to these very simple and manifest principles, when we come to their application. The most important element of reading,

then, is a knowledge of words,—an eye knowledge. The sight, not the sound of the letters composing the word, should suggest the name of the word. How shall this knowledge be acquired? There are different methods in use, each having its partisans. All who know anything of practical education know that there is no question connected with it, more practically important than this,—*how shall a child be taught to read?* A vast amount of time is devoted to this part of the educational work; is it possible to effect any saving in it? Any real improvement in methods will, we think, be the result of the discussion of principles. Whether any method will be discovered that may be properly called *the* method, as logic is *the* art of reasoning and not merely *an* art, it is impossible to say; we may hope that such will be the case. We have been endeavoring to ascertain the respective provinces of the eye and the ear in reading,—in reading, not in *learning to read*,—with the hope that, knowing the organ employed in the practice of the art, we might hence infer what organ needs special attention in the acquisition of the art.

The eye we have seen to be the inlet of knowledge in reading, whether silent or audible. The ear (of the reader) has nothing to do either in receiving or imparting the knowledge. The eye, then, would seem to be the organ to be cultivated in *learning* to read. We might almost say that the ear has no part to perform while the child is learning to read, any more than in reading after it has learned. But to guard against misapprehension, let it be remarked that the process of learning to read may be divided into two parts; one, the learning of the words, and the other the enunciation of them in sentences. The name of a word will be generally learned in the first instance, from the lips of the instructor, no matter what theory that instructor may have adopted. Instead of *telling* the child the name of the word, the teacher might indeed *point to it*, if it was a visible object near at hand. But ordinarily, when a new word occurs, its name is given by the teacher, and, so far, the ear of the pupil is brought into action. The name having been once given, however, the pupil should so associate that name with the word as a visible thing, that the latter should instantly suggest the former. And therefore it is, that we say the eye is the organ to be trained in learning to read. If, after the name of a word has been thus given to the child, he is practised upon it at the time, and at a number of subsequent exercises, he will need generally to have it told him but once. There is here no culture of the ear in detecting differences of sound, but there is a culture of the eye in detecting differences of appearance. Every exercise in elementary reading is mainly a trial of the eye of the child as to its readiness in distinguishing words. And

one great secret of success in this branch of instruction, is to direct the attention of the child to a new word so frequently, and in such various combinations, that it shall be impossible for him to forget it.

We propose next to speak of learning the alphabet and spelling words as preparatory to reading. I. W. A.

Marietta College, March, 1853.

ESSAY ON COMPOSITION.

If parents were all fitted, by natural endowments and education, to commence, and to aid in continuing the great work of proper mental development, it would be an easy task to build a beautiful theory, and reduce it to immediate practice. But unfortunately for our most splendid air castles, the stubborn matter-of-fact world "*is as it is*," and they who propose to improve it, are under the disagreeable necessity of considering it as it is. Hence, while we should *like* to take a boy of ordinary capacity, whose parents are properly educated, and possess sufficient good taste and judgment to give their son correct early habits, through the instrumentality of precepts and examples, and at the age of eight years, place him in the Primary Room of such Public Schools as we might then have, furnished with a primer, in which he has already learned to read most words of one syllable, &c. &c., to the end of that doctrine; we are, alas, stopped short in this flowery path, by the recollection that of the great mass to whom our plan *must be adapted*, perhaps the majority are still innocent of any acquaintance with the alphabet or slate. Of such I would form a class, and in the most familiar manner possible introduce them to the letters first upon the blackboard, and very soon after, as their own handiwork, upon slates. This is the beginning of composition; and it will be readily understood from this, that it is considered of sufficient importance to make it a regular *class exercise* from the commencement. Let us now follow this class in brief through a course of instruction upon this branch of education. As different teachers might, with equal success, manage the minutiæ of this step, by different methods, we need only say in reference to it, that when they have committed the alphabet perfectly, they will also have learned to *write* it, and therein have mastered the *first element* of composition—*letter-making*. At the next step, as indeed in all succeeding steps, the class will necessarily undergo some changes. A part will drop back, and form the nucleus of a *new class* of beginners, while those who advance must be joined *by such as* have fallen behind the next advance class, or have

received some little smattering at home. This second class, therefore, must now undergo a rigid and careful process of assimilation, in style of penmanship; and the greatest difficulty will be with those who have bad habits to be unlearned. They are provided with correct *models* to copy, and incited by all allowable means to correct what faults they may discover, by a close and continual comparison of their different styles. As soon as they are prepared to *practise* what they learn in this particular, we will commence *spelling* and *writing* monosyllables on the blackboard and slates.

Now we shall begin to witness some *life* and *energy*—not unfrequently spiced with a little *sport;* for now in *words* we begin to get glimpses of *ideas*, and through the opening eyes of the mind, a few rays of *thought* flash in from our work. Yet this sport is only the sugar, in which we are secretly rolling the *bitter pill*—as bare *labor* must ever be considered, while mankind continue to be naturally prone to laziness. The Homœopathic system is the true one here.

Still, without seeming to do it, we may give continual attention to the forms of letters. Let them be frequently compared. See that the positions and movements of the pencil, hand, arm and whole body are correct and uniform. A habit formed here, may go with them through life; inevitably producing future success or failure. Even at this early stage, we will begin to exercise them in *rapidity*, but not at too great an expense of *style*. Let us endeavor to illustrate, all along, the wide distinction between *hastening* and *hurrying*, and guard at every step against carelessness. Let them, first, do each thing *well*, and then strive to do it *well quick*.

And here it may be well to caution the teacher against "hurrying." The progress of your class is to be measured, not by the number of different tasks assigned, but by the accuracy and rapidity with which they have come to perform them. At every step let there be an abundance of practice. It is to be understood, of course, that each succeeding lesson is to *afford* and even *require* practice upon all that have gone before; but this incidental reviewing must not preclude *actual* reviews, nor be presumed upon so far as to confuse and distract the mind by bringing forward too many points at once, requiring the same degree of attention. The lesson of *to-day* is all that requires undivided attention; *past* lessons are to be considered in the light of *habits*—very important to be *observed*, but nothing to be *learned*. The theoretical knowledge gained in each lesson is valuable, to be sure, but chiefly so from its relation to that *practical skill*, which must be the result of each, in *habits*, more and more confirmed, or the direct object of the lesson be lost. This *word-making is the* second element of composition! Next let it

be a grand *era* in the history of a class, when for the first time, they are permitted, all at once, to compose the third element—a clause.

Here commences *Grammar*, the *relation* of words to each other; and particular attention must be given to it at this point. If properly managed now, the first principles of Grammar and Rhetoric may be familiarly introduced, and impart an interest to each other, and to Penmanship, long before they *dream* of any such *studies* as Rhetoric or Grammar. Take, for example, the word *lamb*, and after they have all *written* it neatly, and are well instructed as to the *meaning* of the word, let the simple and indefinite thought suggested by it, be gradually and systematically varied, first by annexing some modifying word. Don't tell them, for the world, that it is a "*modifying*" word; for the attempt to repeat so difficult and erudite a term, might endanger their little jaws. Let them write *white lamb* and *black lamb*, inquire how many have seen either or both, and let such as have ever seen a *blue lamb* or a *red lamb* raise the hand.

A *word*, if *it is* a word, that is, if it conveys any *meaning* to the mind of the reader or hearer, is a *picture*. Never lose sight of this idea! And now give the class as many and as pleasing pictures of our *pretty little lamb*, as possible. Let them see him in all possible conditions, at all possible times, by the gradual and natural enlargement of a clause; all the time *weighing words*—noticing how they modify each other, and what the exact meaning of each would be without the other; an exercise in which the investment of time and labor will yield incalculable future profit. When they become familiar with such modifications as may be made by the addition of single words, show them how the same and others may be made by the use of subordinate clauses, expressing all possible circumstances of time, place, degree, manner, means, association, clause, effect, &c.

Do not yet attempt to *classify* words, but simply to lay a substantial basis for future classification, in a habit of critical attention to the *meaning* and *relation* of words! Another notable era—and one long to be remembered—should be when the class compose the fourth element—a sentence! This step must be signalized by stamping indelibly upon their minds some distinguishing *idea* of a sentence. And what shall this be? Let it be that a sentence *expresses* a *thought*, a *whole*, *entire* thought! and let especial attention be called to its important feature of *complete unity!* Letters, words and clauses have hitherto *suggested* a great many thoughts, clothed in as many colors, and shaped by as many different associations, as there were different *imaginations* and different *personal histories* in the *class: but* a *sentence speaks* a thought distinctly, definitely, so *that all see* alike the same precise picture! All this any *child*

can comprehend, and as soon as it is comprehended, *act* upon it Now let them begin to breathe the healthful air of freedom; and be strengthened by the invigorating exercise of original invention. Let each *compose* a sentence, by telling something that he has seen or heard—first *orally*, perhaps, and then upon the slate.

At this juncture, we may possibly determine the influence of this whole class, upon the future literature of the world, by making them see and feel the infinite superiority of a truth telling sentence, over one that speaks a falsehood—or that expresses an idea of senseless or pernicious import! Spare no effort to create in them a *taste*—an especial love for live thoughts —profitable truths! and then call out their inventive genius, in expressing thoughts in different forms. Accustom them to comparison, and to inquiries as to which are the best forms; and explain, to a limited extent, why they are so. Much interest may now be awakened, by allowing all to tell stories or narrate simple events, by the use of Simple Sentences alone. Thus: "I came to school this morning with William. We saw a man mowing in a large field, by the road side. We did not stop long to look at him. Neither William nor I wished to be late at school." The teacher may carefully preserve one of these sentences by each pupil, for future comparison. It would be well, and but little trouble, to keep a book of specimens, from which you could exhibit to this and to future classes, as often as you choose, their progress.

The fifth step, combining the four preceding, will be to embody two or more simple sentences in one compound.

From this point lay the reins loose upon the neck of Genius, and permit him to follow well-nigh, his own peculiar bent; only holding the ends in your hand, ready to be gathered up when occasion requires.

The subject of *punctuation* has been deferred until now, not because it was considered of minor importance, but that its important bearing upon the whole subject might here be briefly hinted at. I should present the marks of punctuation in connection with other parts of the alphabet and the numeral integers. Special attention should be given to them in writing and in reading. Not under the old false notion of their denoting pauses, which they never do, but as making the divisions of sense, and as indicating the nature of sentences. They should be considered indispensable in writing, and as more important than some words. They are, upon a written page, what the lines, dots and shading are, upon a good map. They serve as visible boundaries, and inform the eye at a glance, where each sentence begins and ends—what are the exact relations of the

parts—which are the principal, and which the subordinate sentences, clauses and words. Their careful observance as a habit, will aid much to impart a system, a symmetry and proportion to composition; not only in its Grammar and Rhetoric, but even in its Logic! In my opinion no writer ever did or ever will attain to the highest degree of accuracy, perspicuity and elegance, unaided by some regular system of punctuation, and none within the limits of my acquaintance appears so thoroughly philosophical and practical as that presented in Prof. Mandeville's Elements of Reading and Oratory. J. B. BRIGHAM.

QUESTIONS RESPECTING A SCHOOL.

THE following questions, framed for the consideration of the pupils of the State Normal School of Connecticut, seem so important and practical that we give them a place in the Teacher, and request for them a careful consideration.

SPELLING.

1. Do you classify your school in reference to spelling, as distinct from reading?
2. Do you confine the spelling exercise to a text-book in spelling?
3. Do you require a definition or explanation of every word put out in the spelling exercise?
4. Do you sometimes test correctness in spelling, by dictating sentences containing one or more words of the spelling lesson, to be written on the blackboard or slate?
5. Do you put out the words to be spelled in the order in which they stand in the spelling-book?
6. Do you call on the pupils to spell in the order in which they stand in the class?
7. Do you put out the word to the whole class, and then designate the pupil who shall spell the same?
8. Do you practise your pupils in both oral and written spelling of the more difficult words?
9. Do you require the pupil to write on the blackboard the word he has misspelled orally?
10. Do you practise the method of dictating a number of words to be written by the class as a general exercise?
11. Do you require that the pupils should pass their slates or papers containing their spelling lesson, to be corrected by each other?
12. Do you require each pupil to rewrite correctly, and *spell orally*, the words which have been misspelled in the writing *exercise?*

13. Do you require the pupil to pronounce the word before he attempts to spell the same?

14. Do you require the pupil to pronounce each syllable as he spells it, together with the syllable already pronounced?

15. Do you require your elder pupils to copy pieces of poetry and exercise in grammar, with a view to improvement in spelling?

16. Do you require frequent exercise in original composition, partly to test and improve their habits of spelling, as well as of punctuation and capitalization?

READING.

1. Do you define and limit the portion to be read by a class?

2. Is the portion assigned of such moderate length as to allow of its being read three or four times at each lesson?

3. Do you read all or any portion of the lesson at the time it is given out, by the way of example?

4. Do you give illustration or explanation of obscure illusions, difficult words, and point to sources of information as to such and similar difficulty?

5. Do you require every member of the class to be attentive while one is reading?

6. Do you call on the class to read in the order in which they are seated?

7. Do you commence each lesson at the same place in the class?

8. Do you exact particular attention to the position of the reader?

9. Do you require that he throw his shoulders back, and hold the book at the right distance and elevation?

10. Do you try to break up monotonous tones by requiring the pupil to write a sentence on the blackboard, and then to read the same?

11. Do you allow, as an occasional exercise, a class, or each member of a class, to select a piece for reading?

12. Do you point out on the map, or require the pupil to point out all places occurring in the lesson read?

13. Do you encourage mutual questioning on the part of the class, as to meaning of words?

14. Do you encourage a free detection of errors?

15. Do you require at the beginning or close of a lesson, an explanation of the general character, style, and subject of the lesson?

16. Do you teach the definitions and etymologies, and spelling of words in the reading lessons?

17. Do you occasionally require the class to read in concert?

18. Do you occasionally require the class to write a composition on the subject of the lesson?

19. Do you require every error in reading to be corrected by the pupil making it?

COMPOSITION.

1. Do you classify your pupils in reference to writing composition?

2. Do you accustom your youngest pupils to write or print words and short sentences on the slate from your dictation?

3. Do you ask them to print or write something about what they have seen in coming to school, or read in the reading lesson?

4. As a preliminary exercise in composition, do you engage them in familiar talk about something they have seen in their walk, and which has happened in and about the school? and when they have got ideas, and can clothe them orally in words, do you allow them as a privilege to write or print the same on the slate or paper?

5. Do you give out a number of words, and then ask your pupils to frame sentences in which those words are used?

6. Do you require your older pupils to keep a journal, or give an account of the occurrences of the day, as an exercise in composition?

7. Do you instruct your pupils as to the most approved form of dating, commencing, and closing a letter, and then of folding and addressing the same for the post-office?

8. Do you require your pupils to write a letter in answer to some supposed inquiries, or about some matter of business?

9. Do you request your older pupils to write out what they can recollect of a sermon or lecture they have heard, or of a book they have been reading?

10. At what age do your pupils usually commence writing easy sentences or compositions?

GRAMMAR.

1. Do you make your pupils understand that the rules of grammar are only the recognized usages of language?

2. Do you give elementary instruction as to parts of speech and rules of construction, in connection with the reading lessons?

3. Do you accustom your pupils to construct sentences of their own, using different parts of speech, on the blackboard?

4. Have you formed the habit of correct speaking, so as to train, by your own example, your pupils to be good practical grammarians?

5. At what age do your pupils generally commence this study?

ARITHMETIC.

1. Are your pupils classified in arithmetic?
2. Do you have a specified time assigned for attention by classes, or the whole school, to this study?
3. Do you use a *numeral frame*, and commence with and constantly refer to *sensible objects* in giving elementary ideas of number?
4. Do you question at every step in an arithmetical operation?
5. Do you explain easily and constantly all terms and marks?
6. Do you accustom your pupils to connect the abstract principle of the book with the objects about them?
7. Do you make constant use of the blackboard?
8. Do you go through a regular system of mental arithmetic with each class or pupil?
9. Do you allow a pupil or class to proceed to a second example, unless you are quite sure the first is thoroughly understood?
10. Do you always give one or more additional examples under each rule than are to be found in the text-book?
11. At what age do your pupils generally commence arithmetic?

GEOGRAPHY.

1. Have you a compass, and do you make your pupils acquainted with the four cardinal points of the heavens, and have you the same marked on the floor or ceiling of your school-room?
2. Do you teach them how to find the north star at night, and to locate the north wherever they may be by day?
3. Have you a terrestrial globe divided into two equal parts, and connected by a hinge, to give a correct idea of the two hemispheres, or map of the world?
4. Have you a large globe painted black, on which the pupils may give an outline in chalk, of latitude, longitude, zones, &c.?
5. In the absence of any globe, do you construct a globe, or make use of some common object, like an apple, for this purpose?
6. Do you aim to give your young pupils clear and practical ideas of distance and direction, and the elementary ideas of geography, by constant and familiar reference to the well-known objects and physical features of their own neighborhood?
7. Have you a map of the district, town, county, or state in which the school is located?
8. Do you require your pupils to make a map of the school-room, or play-ground, and from that explain the principles on

which maps are constructed, and what they are made to represent?

9. Do you commence map-drawing by accustoming your pupils to lay off the lines of latitude and longitude on the blackboard and slate?

10. Do you find any advantages in placing the map on the north wall of the room, or having the class recite facing the north?

11. Do you explain the different scales on which maps are constructed?

12. Do you occasionally require your pupils to designate a particular place both on the globe and on the map, and also to point with the finger in the direction of the same?

13. Do you connect the teaching of geography with the reading lessons, and especially with the study of history?

14. Do you occasionally test their knowledge of geography by questioning them as to places and productions of different climates mentioned in advertisements, and the shipping intelligence in the newspapers?

15. Do you occasionally take a book of travels, or a voyage, and require your pupils to trace the route of the traveller, on a map of their own construction?

16. Do you, especially with the older pupils, teach geography by *topics*—rivers, mountains, lakes?

17. Do you accustom your older pupils to construct their own geographical tables, in which the different physical features of a country, continent, or the earth, as mountains, rivers, &c., are classified by their distinguishing element, such as length, height, &c.?

18. At what age do your pupils enter upon this study?

HISTORY.

1. At what age do your pupils commence the study of history?

2. Do you, at any period of his education, endeavor to give each pupil a clear and practical idea of the measurement of time, *i. e.*, of the comparative length of a minute, an hour, a day, a week, a month, and a year?

3. Do you aim in any way to make him conceive the want of his own experience during a day, a week, or year, as constituting his own chronology and history for that period of time, and so apply the idea to the chronology and history of a people or state?

4. Do you modify the exercise of map drawing, by requiring your pupils to fill up an outline map of the world, with the *nations* as they were at a particular epoch? and so of each *country*, as different exercises?

5. Do you occasionally require your pupils to denote on an outline map of the world, the birth-place (date, &c.) of celebrated persons who have led armies, founded colonies, or changed the moral aspects of the age in which they lived?

6. Do you always require your pupils to study history with constant reference to geography and the map?

7. Do you accustom your pupils to make their own tables and chronology?

8. Do you occasionally give out a particular period in the history of a country, and the world, as an exercise in composition or conversation, pointing out several authors to be consulted on the subject?

9. Do you make your lesson in history at the same time a reading lesson?

10. Do you aim, by the aid of pictorial representation, poetic extracts, and vivid oral description, to enlist the imagination in realizing the scenery, occupations, and customs of the people whose history they are studying?

11. Do you avoid the common method of assigning a certain number of pages for a lesson, and requiring the pupils to answer the prepared questions thereon?

12. Do you aim to conduct your lessons in history mainly with a view of showing them how to study it by themselves, and after they leave school, rather than of going over much ground?

13. Do you aim to show the influence which certain individuals and classes of men exerted on the age and country in which they lived?

SEMIANNUAL EXAMINATION OF THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT WEST NEWTON.

THE semiannual examination of the State Normal School at West Newton was held on Monday and Tuesday of the present week, and was attended by a large number of the friends of education, and of the relatives and friends of the pupils. The examinations and exercises exhibited great thoroughness and proficiency on the part of the pupils, particularly in the department of mathematics, and gave general satisfaction to the audience. The teaching and other exercises peculiar to this school, designed to show the proficiency of the pupils in those qualities which fit them for teachers, afforded much pleasure, and it was evident from the general results of the whole examination, that the pupils of the institution had been under careful training, and had diligently improved their time.

Tuesday afternoon was devoted to the exercises of the gradu-

ating class. The exercises were introduced by prayer, and by the singing of an original hymn by the pupils.

Professor EBEN S. STEARNS, the accomplished Principal of the Institution, then read his semiannual report, from which it appears that the whole number of pupils connected with the Institution since the last report, Nov. 23, 1852, is 75 — a somewhat smaller number than usual, owing to the large number of graduates sent out during the previous year, and the uncertainty with regard to the future location and prospects of the school. The whole number of candidates for admission to the last new class was 31, of whom 18 were received on the usual conditions; 7 on "special probation," and 6 were rejected.

The number of towns in the State represented in the school is 39, and the number of States 7. Middlesex has sent 30 pupils; Suffolk 12; Essex 6; Barnstable 2; Hampden 1; Worcester 6; Norfolk 4; Hampshire 1. Maine has sent 2; Vermont 2; New Hampshire 4; and Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Tennessee and Ireland, 1.

The report also gave some statistics showing the occupations of the parents of the pupils, from which it appears that nearly all classes in the community participate in the benefits of the institution; the largest proportion of the pupils, however, being children of farmers; the next largest of merchants; and next in point of number the children of clergymen.

The number of pupils in the advanced class is 7; the number in the graduating class is 28. The number dismissed for ill health or want of those qualities deemed essential in the instruction and management of schools is 5.

The demand for school teachers from this school, notwithstanding the large graduating class of the last term, has more than equalled the supply. The report states that for nearly three years no persons have been admitted into this institution who have not in good faith solemnly pledged themselves to teach in the public schools of this State, and that in no case where young ladies have failed to redeem this pledge, has the principal felt that they were so far at fault as to justify him in receiving from them tuition money.

The success of the graduates of the institution, it appears from the report, has been very gratifying, though in some cases they have labored under very great disadvantages. In some districts the old prejudices against Normal graduates have not yet been fully eradicated, whilst in others too much is expected of them. But in spite of these and other disadvantages, most of the graduates do succeed admirably, and gain a proud influence.

Referring to the principles and character of the school, the *report states* that nowhere can more exact and thorough instruc-

tion be found, and that more rigid system and severer discipline cannot be discovered, West Point alone excepted. The effect has been, and is, more rapid and reliable development, more refinement of spirit, more independence of character, and much more health and soundness of body and mind than before.

Professor Stearns renews his recommendation to extend the term of connection with the institution to two years, by adding two terms to the present undergraduate course.

The report speaks in favorable terms of the diligence, faithfulness and progress of the pupils. It states that their general health has been good. It also pays a tribute of respect to Miss R. M. Pennell, for nearly four years an assistant teacher, who has dissolved her connection with the institution to take a professorship in the Oberlin College.

In connection with his report for the term, Professor Stearns presents some interesting statistics to show the operations of this school during the fourteen years which have elapsed since it was established. The whole number of different pupils connected with it during that time is 813; whole number of graduates, 598. The whole number of pupils from Massachusetts is 739; from other States, 74. The whole number of graduates who have deceased is 50. The whole number of towns in Massachusetts that have been represented in the institution is 127. From other States, the number of pupils has been as follows: Maine 15; New Hampshire 22; Vermont 8; Rhode Island 13; Connecticut 2; New York 3; New Jersey 4; Pennsylvania 9; Tennessee 1; Louisiana 1; Florida 1; Ireland 1.

The conclusion of the report was devoted to an exposition of the actual pecuniary advantage derived by the town of Newton from the connection of the Normal School with the schools of the town. (It will be recollected that the grammar and the primary schools of West Newton are connected with the Normal, and are known as the model schools.) They have a permanent principal, Mr. Nathaniel T. Allen, and a principal of the primary department, and are supplied with assistant teachers from the advanced class of the Normal School — each assistant serving two weeks as an observer under her predecessor, and teaching two weeks. The whole expense of the two schools to the town for four years has been $6,400. To counterbalance this, $1,600 have been received from scholars out of the district, who have paid a tuition fee to avail themselves of the peculiar advantages afforded by the school. The value of the services of the assistants from the Normal School is estimated at $200 a year for each assistant, making for the four years $2,200. Deduct this and the amount received for pay scholars, from the whole expense, and it leaves the actual cost of the two schools to the *town, $2,600,* or about $650 per annum—less than the

amount which would be required to pay for the services of one good teacher.

Professor Stearns says in conclusion that although a very small school must be expected for the present, and until fairly settled in its new location (at Framingham) yet there will be no lack of effort for the good of the institution, and for the advancement of the great design of its existence.

After the reading of the report, a very beautiful poem was read by Miss Louisa P. Stone, of Newburyport. The valedictory was then read by Miss Jane P. Andrews, of Newburyport. This was a well written production, and was feelingly spoken.

Upon the conclusion of these exercises, short addresses were made to the pupils by the Hon. Horace Mann, Dr. Sears, Secretary of the Board of Education, Hon. S. C. Phillips, E. M. Wright, Secretary of State, George B. Emerson of the Board of Education, and Rev. Mr. Brooks of Medford.

The exercises were closed with singing and a benediction. In the evening the usual re-union of the pupils of the institution took place in the hall.

But one more term of the school will be held in the building which it now occupies, at the end of which it is expected that the building now erecting for the institution at Framingham will be completed and ready for occupancy.—*Boston Journal.*

From the Ohio Journal of Education.

COUNTY SCHOOL EXAMINERS.

FROM the information we have received in regard to the character of the persons who have been appointed to this office, we judge that in the great majority of the counties, competent men —men who feel the importance and responsibility of the office— have been appointed. This is a most gratifying and encouraging fact: the County Examiners can exert an influence for the improvement of teachers, superior to that which can be wielded by any and all other agencies connected with a school system. From nearly every part of the State, we see statements that the new Board are making thorough work in their examinations, and that many who have heretofore obtained certificates without difficulty, have been rejected for incompetency.

For the benefit of all who may have thus failed, and of others who wish to prepare themselves to pass a creditable examination, we copy from the Perrysburg Journal the following kind and timely hints:

"*A* WORD TO OUR COUNTY TEACHERS.—The first sessions of *our County* Board of Examiners, under the New School Law,

have been held. They have either said to you, you are well qualified, your qualifications are medium or very poor, or you are totally unfit, at present, to discharge the duties of a teacher.

"'Examinations are formidable, even to the best prepared,' hence it is not to be wondered at that you should shrink from them. Many of you, doubtless, have been disappointed, perhaps mortified, at the result; nor is it strange that such should be the case. Heretofore, many of our examiners, and especially those in the townships, have granted certificates so indiscriminately, that it was almost impossible for the candidate, even after a *so-called* examination, to draw any other conclusion than that he was as well qualified as any, and even as well as was desired. He received as good a certificate, and of course was considered as capable as A, B and C, or any one else. Thus, being told year after year that your attainments were sufficient, by those who *ought* to know, and whose duty it was to inform you, you would of course think little or nothing about making more thorough preparation. Our Board say, that although they have refused certificates to many, they have also granted them to many who cannot receive them again unless they are found to have made much improvement. They deemed it necessary to grant them; there was not a supply of those who were well qualified.

"Under this view of the subject, how does it become you to act? There are two ways. First, to abandon the idea of teaching, in view of the labor it will require to prepare. This course will satisfy the indolent, or those who have no ambition to retrieve lost credit or prepare themselves to become useful members of the community.

"The second method is to go earnestly to work and cultivate your minds, (and your hearts, too,) that you may stand in the foremost rank of that profession, than which there is none more honorable, nor more important in the accomplishment of great and good results. Do you ask how you are to do this? The course is plain, if you have but energy and perseverance to follow it. Find a way, or *make* one, to attend some good school, and when there, improve the opportunities to the best of your abilities. Send the first dollar you can raise to Columbus, for the 'Ohio Journal of Education,' one of the best educational papers in the world; and when you get it, not only read it, but *study* it. Next August when there is an Institute for Teachers at Maumee and Perrysburg, be there in good season, not to *visit* and make *agreeable acquaintances*, but to improve yourselves in your vocation.

"Pursue a course like this, and you may reasonably expect that the next time you appear before a Board of Examiners, the *results will be* far different. N."

We believe there has been an error in relation to improvements in education. They have been recommended, because of the success which has attended them, rather than as based on correct principles. Hence, many teachers are very slow to adopt any new method. They wait until it shall be found to be successful in a large number of cases. It may turn out to be no improvement at all, and they prefer to let others make the necessary experiments, while they await the issue. This feeling has been fostered by the differences of opinion sometimes manifested, even by eminent teachers. One is quite positive as to the excellence of a particular mode, for he has succeeded with it far better than with any other; another is quite as positive in praise of a different mode, and for the same reason: he has found it successful. There is danger of *empiricism* in education, as in medicine. We need to look more at principles. It is not enough to say of a method, that it is successful—why is it successful? Real improvements can be shown to be so, aside from the certificates of individual teachers. That which can be demonstrated to be clearly in accordance with the principles of the human constitution, is not to be banished from the schoolroom because A and B confidently declare that their experience is all against it. There can be no real conflict between theory and practice. True, a poor practitioner may always be unsuccessful, however good the theory; and an expert man may have some success in spite of a poor theory. But that method, which, on the whole, is the most successful in practice, we may be certain is the best in theory; and that, on the other hand, which, in its support, can marshal the strongest arguments drawn from the nature of the human mind, will be victorious in the severest tests of actual trial.—*I. W. Andrews.*

John Adams wrote to his wife, "The education of our children is never out of my mind. Train them to virtue, habituate them to industry, activity, and spirit. Teach them to consider every vice as shameful and unmanly. Fire them with ambition to be useful. Make them disdain to be destitute of any useful knowledge." Let mothers heed the wise injunction.

A judicious foresight in so arranging everything beforehand as to prevent trouble, is far superior to any display of tact and skill, (or any amount of "brute force,") in managing difficulties, and disposing of them after they have arisen. "Prevention *is immeasurably* better than cure."

Resident Editors' Table.

GEORGE ALLEN, Jr., ...*Boston.*
C. J. CAPEN, ...*Dedham.*
} RESIDENT EDITORS. {
ELBRIDGE SMITH, *Cambridge.*
E. S. STEARNS, *W. Newton.*

THE July number of the Edinburg Review contains an article on "Popular Education in the United States," which for ability and research we rarely find surpassed: it abounds in statistics, facts and deductions; and as we believe that, on account of the information it contains, it will be highly acceptable to all teachers, we shall publish it entire in our next number. In a highly favorable notice of the article in the Boston Atlas, the editor states that it has been attributed to the pen of the celebrated geologist, Sir Charles Lyell. To the author of the article and the few who are in the secret, if secret it be, it will no doubt be amusing to read the remarks of the press in this country on the subject, and the conjectures as to the real authorship. We will not disturb these conjectures by revealing the name until we have full authority. In the meantime, our scruples may be saved by the proper accreditment in the public prints. Suffice it to say that the writer of the article in the Edinburg Review is a gentleman of Boston of high legal attainments and of acknowledged learning and ability.

THE Boston Journal of August 18th reminds us of a very interesting article in the July number of Blackwood, giving an account of Pitcairn's Island, its early settlement, and its present condition. It is a review of the "History of Pitcairn, the Island and the Pastor," by Rev. T. B. Murray, published in London by the "Society of General Education and Literature." We can hardly believe that the original work itself will give a more graphic picture of this "Paradise in the Pacific." The writer of the article on this subject, in the Journal, signs himself "A Stranger in Boston," and in two instances speaks of the work of Mr. Murray as having been reviewed in Littell's Living Age. "Reviewed" he says, "with so much feeling and graphic power, under the head of Paradise in the Pacific, in Littell." We trust it is not the schoolmaster who is abroad, and "A Stranger in Boston." It may, however, be a slight and perhaps a pardonable mistake, but the injunction of Paul is applicable. "Render therefore to all their dues: tribute to whom tribute *is due.*"

Are teachers generally aware of the fact that for ten dollars per annum they may procure the five principal English Reviews? Let teachers form clubs, and so reduce the expense in proportion to the number of members. We can assure our fellow teachers that the advantages attending such an expenditure cannot be over-estimated. We once heard a teacher say, in excuse for his not subscribing for a teacher's Journal, that he preferred to spend his money for the reviews, such as Littell's Living Age, the Harpers, &c. It is true, these furnish delightful and oftentimes very instructive reading, and are, perhaps, worth the money paid for them, but no true teacher should feel satisfied with what these alone contain. We venture the remark that no one can be sufficiently well posted on European literature and politics without reading the English Reviews; unless, indeed, he be an extensive reader of the original works upon which the reviews are based.

OUTLINES OF UNIVERSAL HISTORY, FROM THE CREATION OF THE WORLD TO THE PRESENT TIME. *Translated from the German of Dr. George Weber, by Dr. M. Behr, Professor of German Literature in Winchester College. Revised and corrected, with the addition of a History of the United States of America, by Francis Bowen, A. M., Alvord Professor of Natural Religion, Moral Philosophy, and Civil Polity, in Harvard College.* Published by Jenks, Hickling & Swan. Boston.

A new book, especially one intended as a class-book for institutions of learning, should present advantages over those in use sufficient to warrant its adoption. Having carefully perused the above work, we feel abundantly satisfied with its superior qualifications as a text-book, both for the higher classes in our grammar schools, and for our higher seminaries of learning.

Dr. Weber is Professor and Director of the High School at Heidleberg, Grand Duchy of Baden. He is a profound scholar, a man of sound judgment, and a critical investigator of facts. This impression we have received from reading his work; and we believe all his readers will be impressed in the same way. But to the above mentioned essential qualifications in an author of Universal History, he adds one which most teachers will deem indispensable,—we mean practical experience in teaching. He has not given us a chaotic mass of facts, leaving the young and unskilled reader to draw either no philosophical inferences at all, or else unreasonable ones: but he has made a careful selection of his *materials*, adopting those of chief importance, and arranging *and classifying* them in historical succession. His "effort has

been so to bring together the events of the world's history in their more prominent aspects and decisive moments, that the reader may obtain a clear idea of them; that the important facts may be exhibited, together with their causes and consequences, and thus be more strongly impressed upon the imagination, and consequently upon the memory."

Dr. Weber has performed this extensive task in a masterly manner. We believe that compilers of books often err in not presenting their facts to pupils in a pleasing form. No one, except for occasional reference, will turn with pleasure to a work in which mere facts are presented in a dull, common-place, unconnected manner. Metaphors, tropes, and other appeals to the fancy, are not out of place in history, provided they be made use of to give interest to the narrative, and that there be no departure from truth in the historical statements. But that a history may be useful in the highest sense, it should be philosophical. In giving facts, what is of chief importance,—causes and effects,—should not be lost sight of. The skilful writer of history, always truthful, will give a zest to his narrative by appealing in his language to the imagination of the reader, thereby strongly impressing the memory, clinching, as it were, in the mind what he desires should be retained, whilst by cunningly tracing effects back to their true causes he will be performing a lasting good to mankind.

We believe that the author has performed all that from his preface we could have anticipated. The style is simple and pleasing, well adapted to interest youth, as well as highly acceptable to the more mature student. Dates are accurately and fully given in the margin, where, in a work of this kind, they belong, so that the mind of the reader is not ever confused by constantly having his attention drawn to them upon the page before him when he has little use for them. Proper names are, in all needful cases, accented, so that there can be no doubt as to their proper pronunciation.

We believe that this work will give the student a better idea of European politics than any of the kind that has yet appeared, and will, to some extent, obviate the necessity of reading more extended treatises on the particular subjects, should he not have time or inclination for this.

Our thanks are most certainly due to the learned American editor; for it is to him that the American student is indebted for much of the interest which he will take in the narrative, and also for many valuable notes, and a more extended history of the United States with which he has enhanced the value of the work.

As will be seen below, it will probably be introduced as a text-book in Brown University, and will no doubt be adopted in Harvard *College*, and in most of the colleges and high schools of

the United States. It has appended to it a chronological table of about thirty pages. It is printed in one volume, large octavo, of about 550 pp., by Jenks, Hickling & Swan, Boston.

We would now call the attention of our readers to the opinions which Professors Gammell and Champlin have expressed in regard to the work.

Professor Gammell, of Brown University, says, "From the examination which I have given it, I have formed a high opinion of its merits as a compilation of general history. I have found it to be accurate, comprehensive, and well written, and considering that it embraces the world's history, it is unusually interesting and suggestive. The portions contributed by the American editor are in keeping with the high character of the work and add greatly to its value. I regard this work as by far the best text-book of the kind with which I am acquainted. I shall immediately introduce it among the books used in the course of historical studies in this University."

Professor Champlin, of Waterville College, writes, "It is truly a wonderful book. How so complete a history of the world could be compressed into so small a space, and be made so readable withal,—being almost as flowing, as picturesque, and as lively as the most brilliant monograph, may well be counted a new wonder. It seems the very essence and marrow of all histories; the well-considered and digested result of the vast stores of historical material which past ages have accumulated. It is the product of an age ripe in history, and cannot fail of being appreciated in such an age. In commending it to our students and others, I shall feel that I am pointing them to the very best book of the kind to be found in our language."

We regret that the proceedings of the late meeting of the American Institute will not appear in this number of the Teacher. It was feared that the prompt issue of the Teacher would have been hazarded by the necessary delay in preparing the account for the press, and it was therefore thought best to defer it until the next number.

To teachers who wish to avail themselves of Educational Statistics, we would say that Mr. J. H. Tenney, lately of Pittsfield, now of West Concord, N. H., has taken much pains in preparing an article on the subject for Adams's General Directory of Massachusetts, and that the results of his laborious researches may be found in the above mentioned work, under the title of "Education in Massachusetts."

We have received the following works from their respective publishers:

A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, *on a plan adapted to the capacity of youth, and designed to aid the memory by systematic arrangement and interesting associations. By Charles A. Goodrich. Illustrated by engravings and colored maps, to which are added the Constitution of the United States and the Declaration of Independence. Revised from former editions and brought down to the present time.* Boston: Jenks, Hickling & Swan.

This work has of late appeared in a new and highly acceptable style. Its pages are interspersed with accurate and beautiful maps, which greatly facilitate and make more pleasant the study of the History. As an evidence of its popularity, about twenty-five thousand copies of the work have been sold since it came into the hands of the present publishers, a little more than a year since, if we mistake not.

THE FIRST BOOK OF HISTORY, COMBINED WITH GEOGRAPHY; *containing the History and Geography of the Western Hemisphere. For the use of schools. By the Author of Peter Parley's Tales. Illustrated by engravings and colored maps.* Boston: Jenks, Hickling & Swan.

A revised and improved edition of this popular work has been issued, with important additions by one of the publishers, a gentleman of long experience in teaching, and who is well fitted to adapt the work to the wants of the present day. A preliminary treatise on geography has been added, and it has been thoroughly revised, conformably to the changes which, especially of late years, have taken place in our portion of the western continent. A feature appears in this work, as in the one above noticed, which has not been supplied in most text-books of history, and the want of which has frequently been expressed;—we mean the combining of geography with history. Events must have "a local habitation," and the young mind must have something to hang its gathered facts upon. Geography furnishes this, not as an adventitious aid, but one close at hand, and which ought never to be neglected in the study of history. Would it not be well for teachers to carry out in the history lessons the plan of calling in the aid of geography? The improved edition of the "First Book in History" is based upon this plan, and as a text-book is in high repute. It has already reached its seventy-fifth thousand. It is used in the schools of Boston and Roxbury, and in most of the schools of New England.

CLASS BOOK OF PHYSIOLOGY; *for the use of Schools and Families, comprising the Structure and Functions of the Organs of Man illustrated by comparative reference to those of Inferior Animals. By B. N. Comings, M. D., Author of Principles of Physiology, Outlines of Physiology, The Preservation of Health, etc., etc.* New York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. 1853.

The author, in his preface, expresses the belief that "Human Physiology can be made more easy of comprehension—more profitable, and more attractive to the young, by appropriate reference to the Comparative Physiology of the inferior animals, than by any other method." In style and execution this work presents all that could be wished for: the plates are superior in finish, and the type is of large size, and such as all school books should be printed in. We cannot speak from experience in the use of the work as a class book. In reading it, we have been much pleased with the fidelity with which the author has carried out his proposed plan.

MAPS.

IDE & DUTTON, 106 Washington Street, Boston, have the best collection of Maps in New England, and as good an assortment as can be found in the United States. We were surprised, lately, in looking over their collection, to find maps which we had supposed could not be obtained but by sending to Europe for them. All classical schools and academies should be supplied with copies of the large German maps of the Roman World, of Italy, and Greece. The late examinations for admission into Harvard and other colleges, show that these institutions have determined to raise the standard of acquirement in Ancient Geography and History on the part of candidates. A good Ancient Atlas will be of great advantage to the student. Will not other cities and towns follow the example of Boston, Charlestown, and Cambridge, and supply their schools with the best maps that can be obtained?

We hope, in a future number, to give a more particular account of the maps which may be found in the Messrs. Ide & Dutton's collection.

Teachers' Institutes will be held during the autumn as follows:

In Natick, - - - -	Oct. 10—15.
Millbury, - - - -	Oct. 17—22.
Conway, - - - -	Oct. 24—29.
Orleans, - - - -	Nov. 14—19.
Malden, - - - -	Nov. 28—Dec. 3.

THE

MASSACHUSETTS TEACHER.

Vol. VI, No. 10.] A. PARISH, EDITOR OF THIS NUMBER. [Oct. 1853.

COMPOSITION WRITING.

PROBABLY no branch of school study receives less systematic, thorough attention than that of *Composition Writing*. In nearly all our country schools, it is scarcely deemed an essential part of a child's education. If practised at all, it is merely an occasional exercise, without definite aim on the part of the teacher, or a sense of obligation as a part of his duty. In giving instruction on English Grammar, does he not teach the pupil how "to *speak* and *write* the English Language correctly?" What more can be required? If it were true that grammar is so taught as to be of much practical utility, the question would be a pertinent one. But with a very slight knowledge of the theory, and in the almost total absence of any practical use of the principles of English Grammar, it is not a matter of wonder that the art and practice of "composition" should be almost unknown in our schools.

Nor does the blame rest altogether on teachers. In qualifying themselves for their vocation, they devote their time and attention chiefly to those branches which they suppose will be most urgently required. When arrayed before the examining tribunal to exhibit their attainments and capacity for instructing youth, how seldom do we hear the School Committee inquire about methods of instruction in this branch of study, or find them giving exercises to test their capability for teaching the same. Again, when the teacher enters his school, he immediately finds himself so overwhelmed with the multitude of other branches to be taught and duties to be performed, that it becomes an impossibility to bestow any reasonable portion of his time or labor upon this branch, however much he may desire it. *While Arithmetic* is deemed of the highest importance, to

teach the child how to compute *dollars and cents* in connection with all the various transactions of business; and Reading, that he may learn to comprehend what others have written, the practice of *thinking* and *expressing thought* in appropriate and correct language of his own, is rarely presented as an *essential element* of education in our schools.

All other studies have their *time*, *place* and the particular attention of the teacher, in the arrangement of school duties. But how is it with the exercise of Composition? In our annual schools, where instruction is most thoroughly imparted in this branch, it is rarely required oftener than *semi-monthly*. Other branches have their hours of study and recitation assigned *daily*, and with all regularity possible,—and a number sufficient to occupy the mind of the pupil through all the school hours of each day, and perchance, lest some leisure hours should slip away unimproved, a little "home study" may be required in addition. But where now is the opportunity to prepare a composition, even once in two or three weeks? No provision whatever is made for it; no time allowed. Still the exercise must be performed,—the composition must be written. Too much like the miser's advice to his son, is the teacher's to the pupil, "Get money; get it honestly, if you can, but get money."

The scholar is required to do what it would be deemed preposterous to demand of him in any other branch of study. He must perform that on which he receives little or no direct instruction, in hours which are ordinarily devoted to recreation, exercise, or necessary business. *The task is in every way exaggerated*; the duty itself, one of the most difficult, from the very nature of the case, which is ever required; the time most inconvenient, because irregular and taken from what belongs to something else; an exercise in which the least aid is rendered by the teacher. In addition to all other obstacles, when the task is accomplished, if well done the meed of praise for it is scarcely sufficient to excite a love for the practice; but if defective, as few are not, the paucity and crudeness of thought, ignorance and unskilfulness in the use of language, all tend to produce mortification of feeling and distaste for the exercise, which create a *dread* of repetition, not unlike that we read of respecting the "burnt child." Is it surprising, then, under these circumstances, that the pupil should procrastinate till the last moment, and then in a quarter or half hour hastily and imperfectly scribble down something to pass as an apology for a composition,—or present an old one, or borrow from a schoolmate, or copy from a book?

Again, what measure of improvement ought to be expected from an exercise thus managed? Submit Arithmetic, Grammar, Reading, or Spelling, to the same method of treatment,—

two, three or even a half dozen exercises in a term, and it would be no less an outcast among studies than is composition writing at the present time.

But what shall we say of the *relative importance* of the art of transferring thought to paper, rendering it cognizable to the senses? Has it taken its present abject position because it deserves no higher place? The two leading objects to be sought for, in the course of school instruction, by both teacher and pupil are, *first*, a vigorous, well-balanced, thoroughly disciplined mind; and *second*, an intimate acquaintance with general principles as applicable to all the relations in life, together with such a knowledge of facts as may be gathered without detriment to a thorough preparation of mind for the future reception and retention of information.

If any exercise is valuable for disciplinary purposes, which requires fixedness of mind,—consecutive thought,—clear perception of objects, and a true relation of ideas and things,—energy, activity and skilful employment of every faculty of the mind, there can be no other superior to this. In our estimation, neither the study of Mathematics nor Ancient Languages can take precedence of it, provided the same degree of interest and continuity of thought can be secured in its application. No individual can write intelligibly, without an acquaintance with the nature and relation of the objects to which his attention is directed; investigation becomes necessary, at once, and the mind is stimulated with new knowledge, is expanded, invigorated and furnished with new facts and principles till it acquires its perfect stature. Thus, whether *discipline*, or the *acquisition of information* be the object, what process is better adapted to secure the end than a judicious use of the pen?

But direct practical utility, in the daily transaction of business, demands an increased attention to this branch of education. It has been said that "men's manners have sometimes made their fortunes;" and a person's language, whether written or oral, cannot be a matter of less importance than his personal appearance and action. Incorrect spelling, improper use of capital letters, ungrammatical sentences, and unintelligible forms of expression, not only degrade the individual in the minds of those with whom he corresponds, but not unfrequently become a barrier to the advantageous transaction of business.

A manufacturer recently received a communication from another, of great pecuniary importance, but full of errors in spelling,—badly written, so indefinite and ambiguous in expression that it was almost impossible to ascertain its purport. And yet the *individual to* whom it was addressed *must* act upon the *premises contained* in the letter, at the risk of great loss should

he misapprehend the meaning of the writer. After puzzling his brain to decipher the epistle, the gentleman remarked,—"The writer of this communication is a very capable business man, and in all personal relations agreeable, efficient, and, except his correspondence, competent; but our business must necessarily be carried on chiefly by writing, and I cannot consent to be subjected to so great inconvenience and hazard in our transactions. This must be the last of my dealings with him."

An individual standing as a prominent candidate for a situation commanding a salary of $1500 a year, whose qualifications were very acceptable, was rejected solely on account of a few errors in spelling. Read the following *literatim* copy of an order given to a teacher by a *school committee man*, within the present year, and observe the impression it makes on your own mind respecting his mental calibre and qualifications for his office. "To the treasurer of the 1st. School Destrict
sir please pay the Barror eighty four Dollors and fifty cents and charge the Destrict."

And yet this gentleman exhibits a personal appearance and *presence*, which would lead to the inference that he is abundantly qualified to discharge with perfect accuracy, any ordinary office in the gift of the people.

In the simple matter of letter writing, who can tell how much the good opinion, esteem, and even friendship and affection, may be influenced by the style of communication of the writer? It may not be a matter to be spoken of, but every one is conscious of an impression, on perusing a communication addressed to us, which must necessarily affect our feelings and judgment with regard to the writer. If, as some affirm, the character of an individual may be discerned from the style of his penmanship, how much more clearly can the mental character and capacity be penetrated, through the medium of written correspondence. In this age, when no individual can hope to escape the necessity of expressing thought on paper,—and the demand for this will always be greater than is previously anticipated,—the importance of thorough training and due preparation cannot be well over-estimated.

We had designed to present in this article, some *hints* or *methods* of teaching this branch of study; but our limits forbid, and we must close by saying, that it cannot be commenced too early, and it should be a *frequent* and *regular* exercise for the pupil from the time he can write words to the close of his attendance on school; and if properly taught it will not be a thing which he will willingly lay aside, but rather will find it among the pleasantest of school acquisitions for practical use and entertainment.

For The Massachusetts Teacher.

THE TEACHER.

GOING at *morning* forth
Bearing the precious grain,
Scatter it over the waiting earth,
Watch for the Summer rain.
Scatter it West and South and North,
All shall be found again.

Scatter it gently, in faith and love,
Over the fertile lea,
Angels are watching thy labors above,
Boundless the harvest shall be.
Sowing it lovingly, riches of love
Yet shall be meted to thee.

Thine may be seasons of wearying toil,
Softening the sullen clod,
Patiently, constantly tilling the soil,
Turning the deep-rooted sod.
Striving the enemy's projects to foil,
Watching where error has trod.

Yet is no glory but bringeth its pain,
Cross shall inherit the crown,—
Who in the warfare would victory gain
Claspeth not pillow of down.
Over the hill-side and over the plain
Waveth the harvest of brown.

Not they who brightest and loftiest shine
Blessings most valued afford,—
Life full of duty is nearest divine,
Imitates closest the Lord.
Life full of labor and honor is thine,
Crowned with a daily reward.

They who in childhood once sat at thy feet
And listened the lessons of truth,
Thy name to their children shall fondly repeat,
And call thee the guide of their youth.
Thy name shall be hallowed by memories sweets,
And blended with teachings of truth.

J. K. L.

Yale College, Sept., 1853.

UNIFORMITY IN ORTHOGRAPHY.

AMONG the various branches of common school instruction, no one seems to afford stronger evidence of general and radical defect in the teacher's vocation, than that of spelling. "Scholars are not taught spelling *now* as thoroughly as when *I* went to school," is the almost universal exclamation of that portion of the community who have arrived at the age of two score years or more. Unpleasant as it may be to us, the assertion must be admitted to be not altogether without foundation, on the one hand; while, on the other, something may be said to justify teachers, upon whom censure is so freely bestowed.

When men now in middle life were pupils in school, few branches of study were pursued, and those not very extensively, among which spelling was made prominent and essential. It was not then necessary, as now, to gratify the ambition of parents by taking the child over the whole circle of sciences; or the curiosity of the young pupil, by merely showing him how many pleasant fields may be traversed by those who are able and willing to labor for knowledge. Nor did the tyro then deem the study of too little consequence to devote to it the time and attention, which in his opinion more important duties required.

Overwhelmed with an aggregation of responsibilities, and distracted by a multiplicity of duties to which he must give his attention, the teacher of the present day would seem to possess some little apology for want of success.

But another prominent cause of failure may be mentioned. It is an undoubted fact that greater and more important changes have been wrought in our orthography within the last quarter of a century, than during a much longer period previous. It was about the year 1830, if we rightly remember, that Thomas S. Grimke of S. Carolina, one of the most brilliant scholars of this country, conceived the plan of reducing our orthography to a much more simple form, by spelling all words, as far as possible, with those letters only which should be necessary to give a proper pronunciation. He attempted to prepare a series of books, for the purpose of giving to the public a system of his method; but he did not live to accomplish his enterprise. The subject was subsequently prosecuted by many individuals of considerable literary note, until it was finally absorbed by Mr. Pitman's phonetic system of spelling and pronunciation, when it became apparent to every one, that no radical change could be effected except by the introduction of an entirely new *alphabet.*

During the whole of this *experimenting* period, a very gen*eral desire* has been manifested in the community, to attain

greater *simplicity* and *regularity* in spelling, and a great degree of willingness has been manifested to adopt any reasonable method by which it might be attained. But the conviction has settled down on the minds of all, that the present mode of spelling must be changed *gradually*, if at all, with the full consent of the community at large, by whom no change will be adopted without a clear evidence of the advantages to be derived from it.

Many important points have been gained, and the general tendency still is, to lay aside old methods whenever greater *simplicity* can be secured without sacrificing any important principle. Thus we find the letter u dropped from the termination of a large class of words, as in *favour*,—*parlour*,—*errour*,—*superiour*, &c., and the k from many ending in *ick*, as in *publick*,—*physick*,—*musick*,—*rheumatick*,—*almanack*, &c. So accustomed have we become to this change, so natural does it now appear to the mind and eye, that it would be considered an absurdity of the grossest character, should any one propose to restore these letters according to former practice.

But while comparatively few of the changes proposed have become fully established and received into general usage, a large number of words are still unsettled, and find no less difficulty in discovering a resting place than did the bird of olden time when dismissed from the ark. Consequently, as lexicographers differ, so do the people in their orthography. What is orthodox in one meridian is heterodox in another but little removed.

No individual in the community feels greater embarrassment from this source than the teacher; for while the business or professional man may decide without hesitation for himself and disturb or harm no one, the teacher is compelled to decide both for himself and all under his charge; and if he would make his instructions intelligible, he must give satisfactory reasons for the choice he makes.

Who then ought to feel a deeper interest in the removal of irregularities from our language, or be more prompt to lend an influence to remove impediments which continually increase his labors, and tend to thwart his efforts in the discharge of his duties, than the teacher?

We have only time to offer a single practical illustration of what we mean, for the consideration of all who may be interested in this subject.

It has, until recently, been a general practice to spell all words derived from the word *travel* with a double l; thus, *traveller*, *travelling*, *travelled;* but many now omit one l; thus, *traveler*, *traveling*, *traveled*. Why should the double l be retained in the one case, or one of them be dropped in the other?

This question satisfactorily answered, will free us from one irregularity in spelling, as applicable to quite a numerous class of words of similar character. The two rules following are given in our books on orthography with respect to doubling the final consonant of derivatives, when it is preceded by a single vowel.

1. *Verbs of* ONE *syllable ending with a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, double their last consonant in their derivatives; as plan, planned; bud, budding, rob, robber, &c.*

2. *Verbs of* TWO OR MORE *syllables ending with a single consonant, and having the accent on the last syllable, double the final consonant in their derivatives; as control, controlling; befit, befitting.*

BUT *if a diphthong precedes the last consonant, (as join,) or the accent is not on the last syllable, (as suffer,) the last consonant is not doubled; as join, joined; suffer, suffered; travel, traveler.*

To the former of these rules we know of no exception. It is so plain that every child can easily be made to understand and apply it. The latter is no less clear and intelligible than the other; but unfortunately we find quite a formidable list of exceptions, mostly words ending with a single l in the primitive, and a few in p, t and s, which by writers generally *have been*, and by many still *are* written with two consonants; as *counsel, counselling; worship, worshipping; bias, biassing; benefit, benefitting*, &c., together with perhaps a hundred others, from which arose the necessity of a *third* rule to meet these exceptions; thus,

3. *Words of two or three syllables ending in l, though not accented on the last syllable, double the final l in their derivations; so of p, t and s.*

Now it must be obvious to every teacher, that the pupil will experience far greater perplexity in attempting to determine what words should come under the *third* rule, than to learn how to spell *all* words belonging to the *first* and *second* rules, if there were no exceptions. That these exceptions are needless, is to be inferred from the fact that no reasons have ever been given to sustain their use, except, merely, that they *do exist.*

On the contrary, not only is uniformity gained, but the number of letters to be written is diminished; and the pupil has only to remember that the simple termination of the derivative word is required to be added to the primitive; as *cancel, cancel-ing*, not *cancel-ling; pencil, pencil-ing*, not *pencil-ling; travel, travel-ing*, not *travel-ling*, &c.

Let us hear, now, what the two leading lexicographers of this country have to say about this matter.

WEBSTER says that "the last consonant is doubled in oppo-

sition to one of the *oldest* and *best established* rules in the language."

WORCESTER, after stating that the derivatives of these verbs are spelled, in the dictionaries of Perry and Webster, with a single l; "and this mode is also more or less favored by the lexicographers, Ash and Walker, Bishop, Lowth, and by some other scholars,"—adds,—"and it evidently better accords with the analogy of the language." In remarking on the orthography of the word *traveller*, he says, "*this form*," (spelling it with one l,) "*only wants the sanction of prevailing usage to render it the* PREFERABLE ORTHOGRAPHY." These remarks are equally applicable to the derivatives of a number of other words ending in l; as, cavil, drivel, empanel, model, gravel, level, marvel, &c.

Thus it appears that these men who have made the study of the English Language the great business of their lives, express their opinion most unequivocally, that both principle and analogy require the simpler method of using one consonant instead of two. Moreover, it is an established fact that principle, analogy, simplicity, regularity and convenience combine in favor of it; and opposed to its adoption we find nothing but "prevailing usage."

Is it desirable that "prevailing usage" should be changed in this matter? If so, who, or what agency is competent to do it?

Men of distinguished literary qualifications may lend their influence,—may do much to hasten or retard the object; but nothing is clearer than that if teachers of schools, generally, should lead the rising generation into the practice of spelling according to the principle we have suggested, no influence could hinder its adoption.

Who has a greater interest in this matter,—on whom does the duty more clearly devolve to investigate the subject, than the teacher?

For The Massachusetts Teacher.

PHYSIOLOGY IN SCHOOLS.

MY simple object in this brief article is to throw out some hints on the importance of physiology as a study in our schools. The subject is a large one, and a full discussion of it would require more space than I have time to occupy. I shall content myself, therefore, with the suggestion of some considerations which *may awaken* thought on this subject on the part of the *teachers who read* your pages.

I know of no subjects which can be made more interesting to scholars generally, than those which are embraced in physiology. I think that this will be the testimony of every intelligent teacher who has ever taught a class in this branch, even though his means of doing justice to the subjects may have been limited. In the little occasional experience which I have had from time to time in communicating knowledge on these subjects to young minds, I have found a very lively interest awakened, and the eager and numerous inquiries put to me by my hearers showed a desire to know more of the exquisite and beautiful contrivances with which our bodies are filled.

I have a very definite and pleasant recollection of the recitations on Physiology in Paley's Natural Theology when I was a member of college. The study seemed to awaken an unwonted interest in the minds of the whole class. And I will say here, that although that book of Paley's is not exactly fitted to be a class-book in our schools on the subject of Physiology, it is altogether the best book for this purpose which has yet been published. At any rate, no teacher who undertakes to teach this branch should be without it. It is by no means a complete, and systematic book on Physiology, but the most interesting points are brought out, and in the very best manner.

The occasional experience that I have had in regard to teaching this branch has long ago convinced me that it ought to have not only a place, but a permanent place, among the studies of our schools.

And if we look at the *nature* of the subjects presented in Physiology we shall see that this is true. They are subjects which to some extent are studied in a different phase or mode in some of the common branches in education. The scholar has attended, perhaps, to the mechanical powers in his Natural Philosophy. If so, he finds in the human body the principles of the pulley and the lever illustrated in great variety and perfection. The principles of strength in relation to form and arrangement of structure he has studied also, and these he finds exemplified everywhere in the framework of the body in the most admirable manner. He has studied Hydraulics, and he sees in the body the most perfect, and at the same time the most complex hydraulic machinery that was ever seen, working day and night in the circulation of the blood. The principles of Pneumatics he finds applied in the respiration—those of Optics in the eye—those of Acoustics in the ear—and those of Musical Sounds in the organs of the voice. His chemical knowledge, too, he finds meets with new applications *in his observation* of the changes and processes going on in the *body.*

The relations, then, of physiology to some of the most com-

mon branches taught in the higher classes of our schools, are of the most intimate character. Physiology, in part, merely extends those branches into a new and interesting field; and the student who has once entered this field recurs to these same branches with a renewed interest. Hydraulics, Pneumatics, Optics, &c., have a new attraction for him, arising from this, to him novel, application of their principles. The incitement thus given to the mind of a scholar by this attractive opening up of new applications of the knowledge which he had previously acquired, is worth much in itself, aside from the real addition made to his mental stores.

But there are relations of this study to other studies still, which should be noticed.

If the scholar has in the prosecution of Botany been interested in the economy of vegetation—in the manner in which plants and trees grow, and flowers and fruits are developed—he will find much in the structure and growth of the body analogous to what is found in the vegetable world. These analogies furnish ever present and ever varying subjects of contemplation and study, as he looks out upon living nature around him. And if he is taught aright, he will find that he is becoming interested in the phenomena of every living thing—that at home and abroad he is an every-day naturalist. This study of nature, let me say, in its broad common relations and its beautiful and extensive analogies, should be made very prominent in our systems of education. It is the application of the abstract principles of science to the forms, and especially the *living* forms, of nature all about us, that gives interest to those principles, and makes us to understand and appreciate them. Physiology, studied as it should be, will introduce the scholar to a very wide acquaintance with the analogies referred to, and provide for him abundant sources of knowledge in relation to the applications of the fundamental principles of the sciences.

I can barely allude to the relation of physiology to mental philosophy. One who has studied the latter, and then comes to the study of physiology, will be impressed with the fact, that the operations of the mind are to some extent dependent upon the material organization. The subject of the connection of the mind and the body not only unfolds new wonders to his view, but gives him a new idea of mental philosophy itself. He sees that this part of physiology is different from any other study to which our attention is directed. In other studies we look at matter alone, or spirit alone; but here we look at matter and spirit in a mysterious union. In this respect the study of Physiology has both a deep and a novel interest.

There are some other points on which I should like to remark, *but I have* not time to do so. Among them are,—the

endless variety of the subjects presented by Physiology; the facility with which they can be illustrated and explained to even quite young scholars; the interest which we feel in these subjects because they relate to ourselves, our own bodies and spirits; and the bearing which this study has upon the securing of proper hygienic regulations, both in individuals and in communities.

New Haven, Conn.

From Godey's Lady's Book, May.

PLACING A DAUGHTER AT SCHOOL.

BY MOTTE HALL.

["I have brought my daughter to you to be taught everything."]

"Dear madam, I've called for the purpose
Of placing my daughter at school;
She 's only thirteen, I assure you,
And remarkably easy to rule.
I 'd have her learn painting and music,
Gymnastics and dancing, pray do,
Philosophy, grammar and logic;
You'll teach her to read, of course, too.

"I wish her to learn every study;
Mathematics are down in my plan,
But of figures she scarce has an inkling,
Pray instruct in those, if you can.
I'd have her taught Spanish and Latin,
Including the language of France;
Never mind her very bad English,
Teach her *that* when you find a good chance.

"On the harp she must be a proficient,
And play the guitar pretty soon,
And sing the last opera music
E'en though she can't turn a right tune.
You must see that her manners are finished,
That she moves with a Hebe-like grace;
For though she *is* lame and one-sided,
That 's nothing to do with the case.

"Now, to you I resign this young jewel,
And my words I would have you obey;
In six months you return her, dear madam,
Shining bright as an unclouded day.
She 's no aptness, I grant you, for learning,
And her memory oft seems to halt;
But, remember, if she 's not accomplished,
It will certainly all be your fault."

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

NEW HAVEN, TUESDAY, Aug. 16, 1853.

THE American Institute of Instruction met at the State-House in this city this morning, at 10 o'clock, GIDEON F. THAYER, Esq., President of the Association, presiding. Many ladies, as well as gentlemen, teachers from different parts of the country, were present, and the Representatives' Hall was nearly filled at the opening.

The meeting was opened by prayer by Rev. Dr. MITCHELL, of New-Haven.

Mr. BARNARD, of Hartford, in behalf of the teachers of Connecticut, welcomed the members of the Institute to this State, and congratulated them on meeting some of those who, twenty-three years ago, in the State-House of Boston, established this Association, and upon the good it has accomplished.

JAMES F. BABCOCK, Esq., tendered a similar welcome from the teachers and citizens of New-Haven.

Invitations were also sent from the officers of the College, to visit its Cabinet and other objects of interest.

Professor SILLIMAN now addressed the audience, and said, having had opportunity, he recently visited the East, and he had been more deeply impressed with the great importance of general education. Almost the whole continent of Europe was under the influence of military despotism. He was very much gratified to see the prevailing universal sentiment among us in favor of education. So long as this is the case, we had nothing to fear except in relation to one subject, unless the Providence of God interpose. But, on the continent of Africa, in that respect, there appears a ray of light. Wishing them the greatest happiness in their deliberations, he bade them "good morning."

Mr. THAYER, the President, responded, expressing on behalf of the Members of the Institute his gratitude for the kind reception they had received. He proceeded, also, to enter into a statement of the origin and history of the Institute, reading a portion of the Act of Incorporation, passed by the Legislature of Massachusetts in 1831, and the subsequent extension of the Association, so as to give it a national character. A volume of lectures has been published every year, making twenty-three volumes, which contain a great amount of valuable information.

The annual reports of the Directors, Curators and Treasurer were severally read and approved.

The Committee on Prizes reported that but seven essays had been received; all but one on the same subject. The Committee unanimously awarded the first prize to Mr. E. A. H. ALLEN, of Troy, whose essay was read by Mr. MANSFIELD, of Cambridge.

The subject of the essay was "*The Means of the Symmetrical Development of the Intellectual Powers.*" It takes the ground that the true principle of education is self-education. True education is a natural and symmetrical development of the intellec-

tual powers. This, however, is not instinctive, but requires outward aid. A good education would enable us to use all parts of the brain, as gymnastics enable us to develop all the muscles of the body. The knowledge required in a system of education must not be loose, but connected and systematic. Principles, which are sound and reliable, are the only proper food for the mind. The number of pure elemental sciences is small. The first of these is Mathematics. Next to this is Natural Philosophy. The ideas here developed are those of motion, sound, heat, light, &c., embracing Astronomy, Chemistry, Physiology, &c. These are the Natural Sciences.

All the sciences have not been advanced alike. Mathematics, being the oldest, has advanced the farthest. Mathematics is of less importance as a matter of learning, than for the use it is as an instrument for acquiring the knowledge of the exact sciences.

One who has acquired the knowledge of a science, will understand the enunciation of its laws, while they will be unmeaning to one who is ignorant of them. Hence the facts of science are the first to be learned, and the principles afterwards, on the inductive principle.

The author then proceeds to speak of the proper mode of proceeding, in the early development of the mind, beginning with the cultivation of the perceptive powers, and afterwards proceeding to the reflective. This process he proceeds to describe as the child advances to youth; and then announces his views as to the best system of education. A fundamental distinction should be made between the school of childhood and of youth. Between childhood and youth, growth or physical development should be the object. Childhood should be considered as the observing period, and on this principle the system should be formed. The cabinet should be in the primary school, and books, to a great extent, reserved for a later period. Nature before books — this is the great principle.

The essay was able and interesting throughout, and was listened to with deep interest.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Institute reassembled at 2½ P. M. Mr. JENNER, of New York, offered a resolution, that the highest interests of the community demand of the several Legislatures the permanent establishment of the teacher's profession.

MR. BULKLEY, of New-York, seconded the motion, in order to give opportunity for discussion.

Mr. JENNER, in support of the resolution, said this subject had been agitated extensively for the last twenty years. In witnessing the deficiencies of teachers, he had become convinced that one-half of the public money was wasted, from their inefficiency. There were two great difficulties. On one side it was said: "Give us more money, and we shall have qualified teachers;" and on th *other side* it was said: "Make teaching honorable," and we shall *have qualified* teachers. But he believed that if teaching were *established* as a profession, and the same safeguards thrown around

it as are around the other learned professions, the object would be attained. The people were prepared for it. When a man is licensed for other professions, the examination is made by those in the profession. But the examination of teachers, as often conducted, is but a ridiculous farce.

Mr. GREENLEAF, of Bradford, was not certain but that some of them got about as much pay as they deserved. He agreed with what his good friend had said; but we could not pass a law that would give us knowledge without study. A teacher would get good pay if he was well and thoroughly qualified. There was not a teacher so qualified in Massachusetts, who did not get more than the clergyman. He liked these Normal Schools. He liked the High Schools. They helped the Academies. Education was 323 per cent. higher in Massachusetts than it used to be.

Mr. HEDGES, of New-Jersey, wished Mr. JENNER to give a sketch of the law he proposed, by which the Legislature might enact them into good teachers.

The resolution was laid on the table.

Mr. PHILBRICK, of the Connecticut Normal School, delivered a lecture according to appointment. Before proceeding to his lecture, he reverted to the history of the Association, and said that, from its very organization down to this day, it had moved onward and upward with a steadily increasing momentum. It had exerted its influence in raising the standard of the qualifications of teachers. It had proved that Education was an art, based upon a science. It had also increased the impression upon the community, of the importance of education to the existence and welfare of our institutions.

The subject of his lecture was "*The Advancement of Common School Education*," and, in the treatment of the subject, he reverted to the condition of our Common Schools fifty years ago, noted the improvements that had been made, and the deficiencies yet existing. The great deficiency was, want of more efficient moral and religious training; he insisted on retaining the *Bible* as the text-book on these subjects. Another deficiency was, the want of physical culture; he spoke of the neglect of the laws of health in the practical management of the schools. He spoke, also, of the deficiencies in intellectual training.

After enumerating these deficiencies, he spoke of the means of improvement, which were chiefly the diffusion of information.

The people of Connecticut have the best foundation for a Common School system; and yet they complained that they were behind their sister States, though there were many brilliant exceptions. The truth was, they had been starving their Schools on the half-allowance derived from their Fund. They could not have good Schools without paying for them. The Superintendent had recommended that the proceeds should not be distributed except to those towns which would raise an equal amount. This would amount to but a tax of half a mill on the dollar. Boston was taxed for her Schools 1.7 mills on a dollar, on an average, for the last *ten years*. An equal tax on the property of this State would enable

them to have the best teachers in the State. Maine pays 2.07 mills on a dollar. This would give Connecticut $800,000. It would be easy for them to do it if they had the disposition.

Information should be diffused, not only on this point, but on the importance of improved School-houses, and the influence of education on the country. But they must never lose sight of the fact, that "as is the teacher, so is the pupil." Every teacher, wherever planted, should be a centre of light and heat. They ought to keep up State and County Associations. They ought to establish and support educational periodicals. And he quoted, as worthy of imitation, the example of Ohio.

He concluded by relating an incident. He took occasion, recently, to visit one of the numerous factories of this State — a factory for making umbrellas. He saw a machine sending out these things perfectly finished. "There," said the proprietor, "is just what your Schools ought to be." And why are they not? Because, said he, we have not spent the sleepless nights over it that he did.

Mr GREENLEAF, of Bradford, said he thought one of the greatest deficiencies in our schools was, that scholars wanted to do too much. They wanted to pursue too many studies, and they wanted to learn B before they did A.

Dr. HOOKER wished to correct a mistake prevailing that deformity in students arose from assuming a bad posture, and that the way to correct it was, to assume a correct posture. That was not the difficulty. The symmetry of form depends entirely upon the proper exercise of the muscles. There was not a bone in the body but was held in place by the muscles.

Mr. HUNTINGTON, of Waterbury, said that LAMBERT'S Physiology took the same view of the subject as Dr HOOKER.

Dr. B. N. COMINGS, of New-Britain, said the cause of the spinal curvature was generally muscular weakness; but position contributed to it. When the muscles became weak, the person acquired the habit of reclining to one position, and that became habitual. Generally, with ladies, the principal cause was muscular weakness. A New-York physician had expressed his belief that two-thirds of the ladies in that City were subject to spinal curvature, or spinal irritation. The cause was, mainly, that American ladies were strangers to physical exercise. And what is the system of education which produces this result? Our young ladies, at the period of ten years of age, when they are allowed the noble privilege of being girls, and romping, are as straight as the boys. This deformity commences when they are expected to become *young ladies*. And then, when the period arises that they are to be sent to the boarding school, they are immured—for what? To get an *education*. The father thinks that a teacher who cannot *finish* up a young lady's education in a year or a year and a half, is not a competent teacher. They finish it in this time, because they have not physical strength to do more. The object is to hurry them *through* all their studies in this time. They will have six, or eight, *or nine* studies, while a strong, healthy young man at college is *not* expected to pursue more than three. The consequence is they

acquire only a superficial knowledge of the branches they study, and become that fashionable specimen of humanity, a *nervous lady*. In the boarding schools, no opportunity is afforded, generally, for proper exercise.

He adverted, also, to the want of exercise of the other sex. It had been said that a life of study was necessarily a short life. But it was not so. He had a memorandum of a large number of literary men, who had lived to a great age. The reason was, that in developing the brain, they had also developed the whole nervous system. He spoke of the feeble, sickly condition of the graduates of our colleges, and of our clergymen, because of the fact that there is no provision made for thorough physical development. In old times, when every clergyman had his parsonage, and rode in his own wagon, the clergyman's sore throat was not known. This comes from general muscular weakness. And what is the exercise that most of our clergymen take? On Monday forenoon, he goes out and makes a few visits. But how does he walk? He walks deliberately about, not four miles at a time, but less than one. He repeats this. By and by he is out of health, and he is voted a vacation. And how does he go? Does he ride his own horse? No. He gets into the cars, and closes the window, and breathes the poisonous air. And in his round, he only gets a little change, not a remedy. Let a law be passed, requiring every clergyman to be furnished with a saddle-horse, and forbidden to ride in the cars, and we should hear no more of sore throats. He appealed to teachers to practise on these principles, both in relation to themselves and to their pupils. Let every teacher pass four hours every day in out-of-door exercise, and let this be practised by the rising generation, and instead of a race of literary dyspeptics, we shall have a race of intellectual giants.

Dr. Hooker wished to impress on the audience the importance of change of position, while engaged in study or rest. On looking over our audiences it would be easy to perceive that gentlemen changed their positions, while ladies, in obedience to fashion, sat bolt upright. What he insisted upon was, that in school the pupils should be permitted to change their position.

The minister's sore throat was not produced by the immediate effort of the muscles. It was owing to nervous debility. Why did not lawyers have it? Because, speaking extemporaneously, they speak with variety of tone and manner. If clergymen could write half and extemporize half their sermons, they would have less sore throat.

Prof. Silliman said he had been struck with the healthful appearance of the rosy-cheeked Scotch girls. He had seen a family of girls, who, having large grounds, were allowed to romp, and were in fine buoyant health. He knew an instance now of a large family of children, who are allowed to romp and roll, and are in good health.

Then, in regard to eating, if a man would give himself time to eat, with cheerful *conversation*, we should not eat too much, and our *food would do us good*. We, as a nation, are, in comparison with

Europeans, in feeble health. His most decided opinion was, that physical education among us was neglected. He had seen some of the finest men destroyed by it; and he was sorry to say that there was yet no remedy. He believed, in our normal state, we were wound up for one hundred years; and if we could let alone spirits, tobacco, and opium, and take plenty of relaxation and physical exercise, we might attain to it. We have a great defect in our city. "Land, land!" was the great cry — no squares, no room. We were far behind the people of Europe, in buoyancy of spirits, in physical energy, and in general health.

TUESDAY EVENING.

A lecture was to have been delivered by Mr. FRANCIS T. RUSSELL, but being detained by indisposition, his lecture was delivered by his father, Mr. WILLIAM RUSSELL. The subject was "*Elocution.*" In the commencement he referred to the results of school-training in the counting room and in the pulpit; in the former case, the occupant feeling himself prepared for his station, and the other not. He confined himself to the point of school training, speaking of the use of rules in reading. These rules were often arbitrary, and sometimes absurd, which he showed by quoting from SCOTT'S LESSONS. But rules, which were rules, were merely the expression of classified principles. Of such we could never have too many. He teaches poorly who does not refer every rule to its parent principle. Many teachers object entirely to rules; but their practice does not accord with their theory.

But it was also said that the use of rules serves only to distract attention. But this arises from the want of a thorough knowledge of the subject.

There is an absolute necessity for rules in teaching elocution. Elocution is an art, and all arts must be pursued according to rule. No one would think of pursuing the art of music without rules; and why should it be supposed that an art so nearly allied to it, should be pursued without rule? Emotion is expressed by sounds, according to certain principles; and to perfect an expressive utterance, those principles must be understood. It is the province of the teacher, who understands these rules, to preserve the natural habit of correct speaking, and to guard against wrong habits.

What, then, is the true foundation of rules of elocution? Speech is the expression of sentiment and emotion. Often the feeling of the speaker will be understood, when not a word is understood. The expression of emotion is not dependent upon words. When the curse of the confusion of language came upon man, there still remained the sympathetic expression of feeling. But all language is the expression of emotion. We may write without feeling, but we cannot speak without it. The way to obtain correct rules, then, is to study the principles which indicate the nature of emotion. With such a foundation to rest upon, rules are no longer arbitrary forms, but the true expression of principles. These rules should be practically taught by the *inductive system*, so that the pupil may see its use at the same time *that he* acquires the knowledge of it. This the lecturer illustrated

with appropriate and expressive examples, showing how teachers may, by similar examples, or by calling out pupils in such exercises teach the true principles of elocution. The voice must be exercised, in accordance with true principles, in order to develop and preserve its natural power. It also tends to cultivate the taste of the ear. A harsh, coarse tone of voice in a teacher exerts a sad influence upon the school; while a cultivated, well-disciplined voice, produces peace and harmony. How important that the model in the teaching of reading should be a good one. If the teacher has been faithful, the voice of harmony will be heard in the home circle. And the melancholy hours of the sick room would be lightened, if the voice of melody could be heard in reading there. But the influence stops not here. How much is lost in the pulpit and in all the walks of life, by the want of the proper culture of the voice in the school.

WEDNESDAY, Aug. 17, 1853.

The Institute assembled at 9 o'clock. Prayer by Rev Dr. CLEVELAND, of New-Haven.

On motion of Mr. PHILBRICK, a committee was appointed to report at the next annual meeting on the support of Common Schools throughout the country. The Chair appointed Mr. PHILBRICK, of New Britain, Ct., Mr. BISHOP, of Boston, Mr. HENRY BARNARD, of Hartford, and Dr. LORD, of Columbus, Ohio.

A lecture was delivered by Prof. KRUZI, of Appenzell, Switzerland, late Professor in the London Home and Colonial Normal Seminary, on "The Character of PESTALOZZI, and his efforts in the cause of Education."

It was an acknowledged fact, he said, that the name and biography of great men cannot be separated from the great causes to which they have devoted themselves. PESTALOZZI was born in Switzerland, in 1746. He received the ordinary school education, excelling chiefly in imagination and originality. Having lost his father, who left him little property, he first designed himself for the Church, but afterwards took up the law, with the view of assisting his countrymen in maintaining their liberties. But he was turned from his course by the counsels of a dying friend. After this, he bought 100 acres of uncultivated land, and built a fine house in the Italian style. In a letter to the person to whom he was engaged to be married, he tells her his faults, and frankly declares that he shall put his duties to his country before those to his wife, and that his life would not pass without great undertakings. This was addressed to one of equal nobleness of soul. This marriage, bringing him a good wife and some property, might have made him independent, but that he was not qualified for the management of property. His property became embarrassed. He, however, made an appeal to the public for aid, and established an agricultural school on his own property, where the children of the poor were collected and instructed in the Winter, and put to labor in the Summer. They were instructed in weaving.

This, however, met with ingratitude from the parents, and ridicule from others, and involved the loss of most of his wife's property. From this time, for eighteen years, he struggled in great

embarrassment, when he published his great work which established his reputation. He also published other works in favor of liberty and the elevation of the poor.

At this time occurred the French Revolution. Switzerland was obliged to change its form of government, after the model of France. But this was resisted by some of the Cantons, and particularly in Interwalden, were all classes where massacred by the French without mercy. PESTALOZZI went to the only place left by the French, and began his work as a schoolmaster—first washing the children with his own hands from their filth. Here it was that he commenced his great work. His first thought was to alleviate the sufferings of the poor. His next idea was, that this could only be done by fully developing all their faculties, physical, mental and moral. This he did on the principle of reducing all the branches of study to their elementary principles, and teaching the children facts and principles rather than words and forms. The Phonetic reading was first attempted by PESTALOZZI.

This plan agreed with the natural disposition of children. He saw their animation, and the joy that was sparkling in their eyes. He had the moral culture as much at heart as the mental. And yet there he desired rather to produce a feeling than a dogma. He not only spoke about love, but he taught them to love one another. An incident: On hearing of the burning of a town, not far distant, he laid the matter before the pupils, and told them of the destitute condition of the children. They said, "Let them come here." "But your rations will be diminished." "Let them come,—we will share with them."

The vicissitudes of the war compelled him to give up his work at Stantz. But his enthusiasm was undiminished. He now went to the little town of Butolph, and requested the authorities to let him teach the little children. The lecturer's father joined him in 1818, and the school was opened in an old castle. The system upon which they proceeded was what PESTALOZZI called the *Natural System.* The lecturer proceeded to describe the plan at some length, which was to address the child through the senses, teaching him facts, and leading out his mind through them, to the understanding of principles, and showing how it led to a harmonious development of all the faculties. The child was active, and he would seek either to build or destroy; and this principle was kept in view, and made auxiliary to the work of instruction. Arithmetic was taught in a natural manner, so that visitors were astonished that the children would answer questions from their heads, which a learned man would have answered by Algebra.

PESTALOZZI'S residence at this place had been a decisive one. It had settled his experiment. He now went to another little town, on the shores of a small lake. Here his school became celebrated, and a resort for pupils from all the European nations. Besides the pupils, there came a great many men, teachers, and others, to learn his method of teaching. Many were sent by Government, from Prussia, Spain, Russia, and other nations. The Emperor of Russia, when his army was on the Rhine, paid him a visit, and asked him for teachers for his own school.

In conclusion, he described this family, as he called the school, assembled on PESTALOZZI's birth-day, when he had arrived at the age of nearly seventy, and quoted an interesting passage from the address which he delivered on the occasion.

He died in 1827, the last years of his life being full of storms and adversities. The one hundredth anniversary of his birth, was attended by thousands, who had partaken of the benefits of his system of instruction. He should be happy if the cause of education was so far in advance here as not to need these suggestions. But there might be here a tendency to press the tree of education too fast. In that case, he would point them to that venerable man, and entreat them to allow the tree first to take root.

Mr. MORSE, of Nantucket, spoke of the allusion in Mr. PHILBRICK's lecture, to the giving of too much aid to pupils in their studies. He thought this was the chief fault in the school-room instruction of New England. He offered a resolution to the effect that it is the sense of this Institute, that keys to arithmetics and algebras, in the hands of pupils or teachers, tend to make superficial scholars, and that this Institute disapproves their use. He regarded it as a point of vital importance. He believed it would be better to suspend all the schools in New England, and devote two or three years to the teaching of teachers, so that they may be able to go on without the keys, than to go on as at present.

Mr. ALFRED GREENLEAF, of Brooklyn, said there was, in the city of New York, a Free Academy for the benefit of all the pupils of the public schools, who are fortunate enough to get in there. Twenty-five per cent. of those who get in are from one school. He asked one of the teachers of that school how they got along so. He replied that, "keys or no keys, every scholar was required to show that they understood what they learned."

Mr. GREENLEAF, of Bradford, replied to the gentleman from Nantucket, and said that he wished that gentleman had looked on one of the pages of his *Key*, and read, *"For teachers only."* He did not believe a teacher that was good for anything would let a scholar deceive him, or abuse a key. He did not see all this evil. He had kept school since 1805. Then they had old PIKE's Arithmetic. Then they had manuscripts in which the sums were all worked out. They brought their sums to him, but he could not get time to work them out, and they would go and look at other scholars' manuscripts. He would like to know what good teacher had never used a key? The best books published in Europe have keys. He always used them, because he could not get time to do a sum, to tell whether it was right.

On motion of Mr. PHILBRICK, the subject was laid on the table.

Mr. BULKLEY, of New York, called attention to the great subject of Mr. PHILBRICK's lecture—the *Culture of the Heart*. This, at the present time, was a matter of great interest, when attempts were making to drive the Bible from common schools.

Dr. BACON, of New-Haven, had no doubt that the teaching which pupils *get is often* a positive disadvantage to them, in respect to the *object of teaching*. He did not believe a pupil could have too much

help, if it was of the right kind. But a pupil might be bothered with help that was no help. He could look back to the time when he was a student, when he suffered for want of help. The business of the tutor was not to teach, but to see whether the pupil taught himself; and the point of honor was, that he should get no help from earth or heaven. If a student had gone to the tutor to ask him to explain a problem in *Euclid*, he would have been *tabooed* in a moment. He believed this doctrine was now exploded, and that the business of teachers was to *teach*. But teaching was not to take the problem and work it out. But it was teaching if he led the mind of the learner through all the successive steps, and made him understand it. Teaching consists in bringing the powers of the mind to an apprehension of the truth. A few years ago, he spent half a day in the High School at Edinburgh. After he got through, he made the remark that, if we had reason to suppose that slaves on our Southern plantations were driven so, we should be disposed to apply Lynch law to their masters.

Dr. HOOKER, of Hartford, believed that pupils were helped too much. There were two objects of instruction—the one to impart knowledge, and the other to give the power to obtain it. He proceeded, at some length, to elucidate his subject.

WEDNESDAY, Aug. 17, 1853.

At 3 o'clock, P. M., a prize essay was read by Mr. PEIRCE, of Waltham, Mass., on "Crime, its Cause and Cure," attempting to show that the common education of the school, secular instruction, is no security against crime — and hence arises the importance of *moral* instruction in our schools. It is generally admitted that crime is rapidly on the increase. Notwithstanding all that could be said in explanation or extenuation, he believed it was a fact that there had been a great increase of crime for the last few years — although never had so much been done, in the way of benevolent operations, for the improvement of society.

He believed that the diffusion of knowledge merely, was no certain prevention of crime or immorality. A very popular notion is, that ignorance is the parent of vice, and that we have only to teach men, to make them good. But he doubted whether, when we have simply taught one to read, and no more, we have really done him any good. Facts would show that, to make one good, we must do something more than to teach him to read and write. This, of itself, only makes men more capable of doing evil. *Facts:* According to the criminal calendar of England, in thirty-seven years, there was an increase of commitments of about seven fold, while the population had scarcely doubled. In Ireland, it was about the same; while in Scotland, crime had increased thirty fold. The London *Times* notices this increase, and in its connection, the fact that this has been especially the period of philanthropic action, and of the multiplication of schools.

In our own country, there has been a great increase of schools. *In New York*, the increase of crime has been gradual for eighteen *years* — *50* per cent. in the whole period, a little more than the *increase* of population.

In Massachusetts, according to the testimony of Gov. BRIGGS, and the Mayor of Boston, there has been a great increase, especially of juvenile crime. In Philadelphia, similar facts exist. With these, he compared the statistics of Prussia and France. In Prussia, where all the people are educated, the returns show a great increase of crime, while in France it is stationary. But in France the comparative exception may be traced partly to the division of the land into small proprietorships. The number of landed proprietors is 4,000,000; while in England less than one-fourth are employed in agriculture.

In New York State, the city of New York, containing about one-fifth of the population, furnishes more than half the criminals. France also has her great cities; and her comparative exemption from crime is entirely unaccountable, on the presumption that Education prevents crime.

On examining the records of prisons, it will be found that convicts are better educated than the generality of their class. At Pentonville, England, it appeared that over 800 out of 1,000 had attended some school. The chaplain thinks that such an education as they received does not prevent crime, and Mr. ROEBUCK was obliged to admit the same fact. *Blackwood's Magazine* demonstrates the fact, that for the last twenty years, two to one of the criminals were educated. And in France, it appeared that four-sevenths of the criminals were educated.

These facts go to show that the morals of a people do not necessarily advance in proportion to the progress of secular education. This affords no effectual barrier against crime. These facts almost justify the inference that education multiplies the facilities for the commission of crime. The proportion is not so great in this country, probably because there is more of the moral element here.

What, then, is the cause, and what the remedy? Crime is not all from one cause. Ignorance is doubtless one cause. And yet mere intellectual knowledge contributes to crime as often as it does the contrary. As indolence promotes crime, let every one follow some regular occupation. All that we do to promote industry, and to furnish labor to those who want it, goes so far to prevent crime. He who furnishes employment, therefore, as truly contributes to the prevention of crime, as he who builds churches and schoolhouses.

Another mode of preventing crime would be, to offer adequate facilities and inducements to agricultural employment to laborers, and especially to foreigners. It has been estimated that three-quarters of the foreigners among us remain in our cities, and hence a large proportion of them are without employment, and with all the temptations to crime. He marvelled that no benevolent enterprise had been set on foot, to provide for the settlement of these foreigners in the West. An agricultural population, spread over a large extent of country, would naturally be more free from crime than the same population collected in manufacturing or mercantile towns. He believed, also, that it would be better for our young *men, as well as for the* community, for more of them to remain in *the country,* engaged in agricultural pursuits.

Mr. PEIRCE looked upon *unsound* education as the chief cause of crime. There never was a time when such outlays were made for popular education, and yet it was the general wonder that crime was on the increase. Our education in the family, the school-room, and of every-day circumstances, has been more of the head than of the heart — to make children learned and accomplished, rather than wise and good. The fact ought to have been the reverse. The greatest outlay ought to have been made to promote moral education. Legislatures have seemed to take it for granted that all that was necessary to reform men was to enlighten them. We have increased the number of our school-houses, advanced the qualifications of teachers, and lengthened the time of the schools. But too much of this has been merely to promote the cultivation of the intellect, without reference to the culture of the heart. A *school* does not generally embrace the idea of inculcating good moral principles and good manners. The same thing is true of our school books. And the same defect runs through our Normal Schools, and the examination of teachers. Morals and moral training should be put not only on a level with other branches, but they should have the preference. The whole spirit and discipline of the school must be *moral* in the highest degree. This moral training must be an omnipresent, all-animating influence. It must be continually at work. The scholar also must feel that he is sent to school for this purpose. *Character* is the object for which we should live, and labor, and pay our money. This work should begin in the family and be carried on in the school. It was possible, he thought, to teach all the principles of Christian morals, without the dogmas of sectarianism.

It might be asked, whether as much was not done to teach morals in schools now, as there was thirty or fifty years ago. He thought there was not. As late as the commencement of the late war with Great Britain, nearly all the children, especially in New England, were connected with some religious society. But now there are thousands who belong to no society, and go to no church. Moreover, he thought there was not so much religious instruction in families as formerly. The time was, when the family altar was generally maintained in New England. But now, he feared these altars were, to a great extent, thrown down. And there, in former times, the catechism was taught in the schools, and nobody was dissatisfied. If the schools of his early days were of any advantage to him, they were chiefly so on account of their Saturday's exercise. But now this could not be done. It might be said that we now have our Sabbath schools, but multitudes of children never go to them.

The subject commends itself loudly to the consideration of the friends of humanity. Let our schools be consecrated to religion and morality, as well as to learning, and then a new epoch will begin, and we shall no longer be troubled with the paradox of *increasing* education and increasing crime.

Mr. GREENLEAF, of Brooklyn, said he had a few statistics, but they were somewhat different from those of the lecture. Of fifty

persons brought before the police in Brooklyn, thirty were Irish, and but eight were Americans. The rest were from other countries. And it is the Irish and Germans who keep the grog-shops that make the criminals. He went into the prison in Brooklyn and inquired, and found but three or four Americans. It was true that we had crime, but it was not our schools that made it.

Mr. HUNTINGTON said we should all admit that public crime has increased in the world. But the attempt to connect it with any system of education is a perfect *non sequitur*. He believed that just so far as we have any system of intellectual culture, we so far put in operation a system tending to diminish crime. The essay says that whatever we do to furnish employment tends to the diminution of crime; hence, as we employ children in the improvement of their minds, we produce this result. It would be as logical to maintain that the increase of crime is originated by the advancing interest in benevolent and religious objects. We might, also, as well attribute it to the increase of the arts of commerce, of luxury, &c. The great objection to the lecture was not its statistics, but connecting it with education.

Mr. BISHOP, of Boston, was afraid the impression would be created, that those who dissented from some parts of the lecture, were opposed to *moral* education. No one felt the necessity of it more than himself. But he felt called upon, as having spent his whole life in the Common School cause, to say that we ought not to be told that for thirty years we have been doing the public an injury, by a defective system of education. He denied it. He believed it could be maintained that, aside from our system of religious instruction, our Common School system has been one of our most efficient means of moral influence. It had been stated that thousands of children in our country are brought into no Sabbath schools. An English gentleman came to Boston, for the purpose of obtaining information respecting the Massachusetts Common School system, with the view of its introduction into England, where it was objected to by many of the clergy, as a "godless system." Questions were sent out, and answers were returned from three of the principal cities, directed to this point. They were astonished by the fact developed, that nearly all — about 99 in 100 — of the children in the schools were also attending Sunday school. In Boston, there were but 13 who did not attend Sunday schools. This was on the 1st day of January, 1853. He believed the result would not be materially varied, if the examination were general throughout the country. Here, criminals are not the fruits of our school system. They were too far gone before they come here. Many of them are trained up as street-beggars, and we cannot get hold of them.

Mr. RUST, of Tennessee, said it must be a fact, that the excess of intellectual over moral culture, was one of the dangers of the present day. If he made any objection to the essay, it was that it was not sufficiently specific as to the means of correcting the evil. Connect education with moral culture, and it results in a virtuous character; but connect it with vicious culture, and it will make a

vicious character. The manner in which we shall connect moral and religious instruction with our schools is the great question of the age — whether we are to have the Bible in our schools as the only true standard of morals.

Dr. HOOKER, of Hartford, said he felt a regret, on hearing the essay read, that so much that is excellent should be mingled with so much that is fallacious. In regard to statistics, it had been said that "figures cannot lie." But, in his experience, figures had been made to tell falsehoods, as often as words. The more complex the causes which produce any result, the less reliance can be placed on statistics. This is particularly the case with reference to the production of crime. Who believes those statistics in relation to Prussia and France? There must be some mistake.

In relation to the prevention of crime, it is a complicated work. The pulpit is to do its work; the school its work; and the family its work. There is a great deal of moral and religious influence in the school; but the school could not do the work of the pulpit. These influences are all to be combined.

Rev. Dr. SEARS, of Massachusetts, was gratified with many things in the essay in regard to the necessity of moral influence. But he was entirely at variance with the gentleman, both as to his facts and conclusions. Statistics are taken with very great difference as to completeness. In relation to Prussia, there has been a rank religious rationalism in Germany for the last fifty years, and just about this time these influences have gone down from the Universities to the people. Then again, what is crime in Prussia? In 1834 he knew an officer in a German University whose business was to spy out the crimes for ten years previous. The consequence was that the most respectable persons were put in prison because, when they were boys at colleges, they belonged to secret societies. And then again, persons were put in prison for not praying according to the forms prescribed by government. He remonstrated against sending out such a prize essay as this. It was a libel upon the Common Schools of New England.

[The President stated that the Institute in no case endorses any sentiment of a lecture or essay.]

CALLING OF THE STATES.

Mr. BYINGTON, of Alabama, said there was no school system in Alabama, Georgia, or Mississippi. Every sixteenth section of land is given to schools; and where the land is good and the people rich, the schools are well supported, while where the land is poor and it is most needed, they derive little support.

Dr. GIBBON, of North Carolina, made some statements respecting the condition of education in that State. The Moravians have a good school; the Methodists have numerous ladies' schools; the Quakers have a college, and there are many private tutors. The State has a University; but the Common School system is very *deficient*. In the back country, if a man has a short crop, he tries *to get up* a school, and goes round with a subscription paper to see *how many* scholars can be obtained, and a school is kept for a few

months. In the mountain region, the people have very little instruction. It is, however, a district which has sent two Presidents to Washington. In the upper districts of North Carolina, there is a practice of sending their boys over to the Tennessee colleges. He gave an interesting account of an expedition of five boys over the mountains on foot, with their guns and fishing lines, with a cart to carry their baggage. When they got there, they hired an old negro for a cook, hired a fresh cow, and bed and bedding. At the end of five months, they hired saddle horses to come home. This was the way that these boys prepared themselves for Yale.

Mr. GREENLEAF, of Brooklyn, spoke for Pennsylvania, having recently attended their Convention. They meet twice a year. They are doing much, though they have to contend against many difficulties. Bishop POTTER has taken hold of the matter in good earnest.

Mr. JAMES said the public school system was originated in 1836. The father of it was THOMAS H. BURROWES. The law was not, at first, extended over the whole State, but was made optional. The schools are free, supported by a tax. When a school house is to be built, a vote is taken of the district, and the necessary amount raised by a tax. The schools are graded, having primary, grammar, and high schools. Philadelphia has some of the best schools in the country. The common schools are nurseries of the colleges, which have flourished much more since their establishment.

Mr. HEDGES, of Newark, N. J., said that State was doing something and saying but little. When he first became acquainted with the schools of New Jersey, fifty years ago, there was no State system. The schools were private. The first State provision was for the poor. About the year 1840, the law was revised. Five years after, a State Superintendent was appointed; and, afterwards, the people of each town were required to levy a tax, equal to their proportion of the public fund, with authority to raise three times as much. And now the schools are advancing. Better wages are paid, and the schools are generally maintained ten months in the year. The cities are separated from the farming districts. The city of Newark has the entire management of its schools. $30,000 was raised last year, though two-thirds of the children are taught in private schools. They are now building a Free Academy, and then they will have three grades of schools. But the cause has difficulties then. They have a strong body of voters who are opposed to common schools. There are three such denominations. The Catholics claim that their portion of the public money shall be paid to the Catholic priests. He should be glad if these were the only enemies they had to contend with. He was a Presbyterian. But he was sorry to say, that there were Presbyterian ministers who openly advocate parochial schools. They would resist it from the beginning.

Mr. MCKEEN, of New York, said they had had a State system for a *great while*. It was a good system, but the people wanted to *make it better*. But their doctoring had not made it better. The

income of the fund is about $300,000, and the towns were required to raise as much more. Three years ago, the State authorized the raising of $800,000 more, to be raised by general tax. But this was not sufficient; and, in many of the rural towns, the people had returned to the old practice of raising money by rate-bills.

The city of New York commenced their school system about forty-five years ago, by the Public School Society. They had accommodations for about 25,000 scholars. This left a large portion to be provided for by private schools. Ten years ago, the Ward School system was commenced. They have erected thirty of these schools. But here were two systems, both receiving their share of the public moneys. But they have now been consolidated into one system. They have had the past year 115,000 children registered. Many of these, however, have been for very short periods. They have one-fourth of all the inhabitants of the State in the public schools.

They have had, in New York, twenty-two evening schools, with about 8,000 scholars registered, about half of whom attended evenings.

These schools have answered a very good purpose. They are managed by lady teachers. One of these ladies showed him a gold pencil-case that had been presented her by the poor servant girls who attended the schools.

They have normal schools, composed entirely of teachers, in which they have opportunity to advance in study while teaching.

Mr. HUNTINGTON said they were just beginning to feel the influence of the teachers' institutes and normal schools, and he saw before him such a corps of teachers as he had never seen before. He believed next year they should be able to make a better report.

Prof. SILLIMAN spoke of the Institution of Yale College. Comparing the state of things when he became connected with the Institution with the present, he could see a great advance. The discipline was entirely parental. He spoke with reference to allusions made in the previous discussions; though he had no time during lectures to converse with the students, yet he had always met the classes afterwards for free conversation.

The examinations are now conducted by printed questions, furnished to each student at the time, each student by himself, so that every one is thrown upon his own resources. Students have always been allowed to go to their tutors or professors with their difficulties. There is no chance for a laggard to get through the Institution, unless he drops through. Those who cannot come up to the mark are dropped. Public punishments are seldom resorted to. They had no regular system of physical exercise, but he hoped they would yet have.

He had derived very great satisfaction from what he had witnessed here; he saw before him such a collection of intelligent men and women engaged in this work. We must have this or the bayonet. And the Bible must be the guide. And he *wished* the old custom of reading the Bible and prayer were *restored*. There is no alternative between this and despotism. *But we cannot* have it here without wading through seas of blood.

EVENING SESSION.

This evening a lecture was delivered by LOWELL MASON, Esq., giving an explanation of the practical application of the Pestalozzian System, with special reference to the teaching of vocal music.

In the year 1832, he said, he had the honor of appearing before this Association, and of illustrating the subject of music in schools by the performances of a juvenile class. He was then honored with a visit from a well-known teacher, then and now the Principal of Chauncy-Hall School, Boston, and now the President of this Institute. This was immediately followed by the introduction of music into that school as a *school exercise.* Since that time music has been very generally introduced throughout the country as an exercise in school. He wished he could add that the principles of PESTALOZZI had been as generally followed. He had intended to speak of some of the principles of PESTALOZZI, before he knew of the lecture delivered this morning; and, on reflection, he had concluded not to change his purpose. The principle had been much abused, especially by the teachers of music. The system was not a mere set of forms and plans. It did not consist in any or all of the helps used by PESTALOZZI himself. Any system that does not engage the mind and heart is not Pestalozzian. The plan of mutual instruction has been called Pestalozzian, but it was never adopted by him as a system, but only from necessity. And those who have adopted this system as Pestalozzian, have not used it as he did. Another way in which his plan has been perverted, is in the singing over, in a hand-organ style, certain lessons. But PESTALOZZI's plan was but little more than simultaneous repetition. In some schools, the multiplication table is turned into lyric verse, and sung to a tune. This is not Pestalozzian—it is monkeyism or parrotism.

Catechizing has been called Pestalozzian. PESTALOZZI did, indeed, converse familiarly with his pupils. And that is a very different thing from having questions so constructed as to require merely the repetition of sentences in the book. PESTALOZZI took care so to form his questions as to elicit thought. He never asked a question that could be answered by yes or no. It has been supposed that the blackboard is the peculiarity of PESTALOZZI's system. But a school lined with blackboards will not necessarily be Pestalozzian.

Pestalozzianism does not consist, either, in any particular nomenclature or vocabulary. Nor is it in anything new in the nature of music, or of notation, signs, or symbols. It is no royal road by which a child can come to a knowledge of music very quick, or with very little study. A tolerably practical knowledge of music cannot be acquired in less time than a tolerably practical knowledge of language. As it is not a short way for the people, neither is it an easy way for the teacher. A man cannot be called a good Pestalozzian teacher who is not an *artist.* But no one who is not qualified for the Pestalozzian system, is fit for any other.

The Pestalozzian system looks to the universal and harmonious

development of the intellectual powers. This has been too much neglected. The leaf called memory has received undue attention. But PESTALOZZI maintains that every leaf should be unfolded. The Pestalozzian will so arrange the various departments of study, as to make them harmonious. Singing and reading are twins—like the Siamese twins, they should grow together. The multiplication of studies is not so much to be objected to as the *manner* of pursuing them. Music and drawing should be commenced together and at an early period. The one cultivates the voice and the ear, the other the eye.

The Pestalozzian teacher is the last to undervalue the communicating of knowledge; yet the opening and development of the faculties he makes the main thing. And all studies are to be pursued with this object in view. It is especially the business of the teacher to prepare the soil for the reception of the seed.

But the notion that reading, writing and ciphering are the main objects of the school, cannot be gotten out of the minds of the community. Music is not supposed to possess any power. To be able to sing or play from written characters, is supposed to be the whole end of learning to sing. And this is not surprising, since it is so regarded in other branches.

The simplifying of the elements of knowledge is another of the principles of PESTALOZZI. This will raise the pupil above the book, and enable him to act from his own understanding. A carefully graduated course is another principle of the Pestalozzian system. The teacher knows that that which costs little is worth little; and hence he is careful not to relieve the pupil from doing his own work.

Perhaps the most important peculiarity of the Pestalozzian system, is that which consists in free inquiry, in opposition to that which depends on the assertion of the teacher.

The Pestalozzian system goes on the principle that things are before signs.

But it is impossible to describe the Pestalozzian system by words, as it is impossible to teach music in a lecture. The principles of PESTALOZZI must be conquered, felt, and made one's own. The man who thus practically learns the system, will make a good teacher. There are some who profess to be Pestalozzian, who mistake it entirely; while many others, who know nothing of it, are Pestalozzian in practice. Pestalozzianism is *Nature*.

Mr. MASON'S lecture was an hour and a half long, and was listened to with earnest attention. It is very difficult, in a brief sketch, to give a just view of it.

After the lecture, the Chair proceeded to call the several States, and give opportunity for statements respecting the cause of Education.

Rev. Mr. PARSONS, of Wisconsin, said that State has a good system on paper. They have a University already in operation. They have, also in prospect a very large fund. They have been thus far sadly off for well-qualified teachers. There are many in the sparse settlements who have enjoyed no school privileges, and are very ignorant. But there *are many* good scholars and good teachers in the large towns, and *a feeling of* deep interest is awakening on the subject of public schools.

They were compelled to feel it by the sentiments boldly put forth in the Catholic papers in opposition to such schools. Another fact of encouragement is, that an association of American women, at the East, are endeavoring to establish schools at the West for the training of teachers. There is one such at Milwaukie.

Prof. FLETCHER, of Indiana, said that the people were waking up to the matter of education. There has been a complete revolution in the public feeling of the State. As Indiana is an agricultural State, the inventions for labor saving in agriculture have left the young people with time for attending schools. New England has a large interest in Indiana, in the railroads and in the population; and this has tended to give an impulse to schools. The State of Ohio has also contributed much to this result. Indiana has a good School Law, a State Superintendent, and a State Board. He hoped the time would come when the meeting of this Institute would be held in Indiana.

Mr SMITH, of Toledo, reported for Ohio. A few years ago there were none of the Northwestern States so far behind in this cause as Ohio. But a few young men engaged in teaching, took up the subject, and held Teachers' Associations, and awakened attention. Six years ago a State Association was formed, who employed an agent to act as a State Superintendent, and his salary has been assessed upon the teachers. He has canvassed the State, held Teachers' Institutes, and awakened interest, till, at the last session of the Legislature, a good law was passed, providing for a tax of two mills on the dollar for the support of common schools. This will raise $1,800,000. They have a revenue of $200,000 from a fund. This will raise the amount to $2,000,000. The Town Boards are also authorized to double this amount. This will provide $500 to a school. It also provides for a tax for school libraries, and for able and efficient Boards of Examiners, and a State Superintendent. There is also a provision for a High School in the centre of each town. The schools are almost all on the union plan, uniting all the schools in a town under one Board.

Three years ago, in Toledo, they adopted the union principle, and built four school-houses for the Primary and Secondary departments, at an expense of about $25,000. They are now building a fine house for the Grammar and High School, to cost about $37,000. The teachers receive from $200 to $1,100 salary.

Prof. RUST, of Tennessee, was sorry that he had not the favorable report to make of Tennessee that had been made of some other States. In about 1820, there was a fund set apart, the interest of which was appropriated to the county academies, amounting to about $200 for each. In 1830, a fund was raised to support a school in each neighborhood, giving to each about $60. But the system has operated rather to prevent exertion. They have some very good select schools. Private tutors are employed in some families.

He had been struck with the discipline of the schools in the East. Accustomed to the obstreperousness of the West, he could not tell how they managed. He mentioned this, that, if any of them came out West, they must not be surprised if they met with some difficulties, till they understand their social condition. Their Academies are about *equal to the High Schools here.* He was happy to meet this Institute.

He hoped the time would come when he could make a better report of Tennessee.

NEW HAVEN, THURSDAY, Aug. 18, 1853.

The first business of the morning was the election of officers. The President, who has occupied the position for many years, having resigned, THOS. SHERWIN, Esq, of Boston, was chosen President, with a large number of Vice-Presidents, and the other usual officers. The President left the Chair, and the new President not being present, the first Vice-President, JOHN KINGSBURY, Esq., of Providence, R. I., took it.

L. LOWELL MASON, Esq., delivered a lecture, exemplifying, in a very interesting manner, the principles set forth in his lecture last evening, designed to give the teachers a practical idea of his method of instructing a juvenile singing school.

On motion, it was voted that Mr. CYRUS PEIRCE be allowed an opportunity to reply to the exceptions taken yesterday to his essay.

Mr. W. J. ADAMS, of Boston, one of the Committee who awarded the prize to Mr. Pierce's essay, asked leave, in justice to Mr. P., to make a brief statement. He said the Committee consisted of five members of the Institute, each of whom, without knowing the names of the writers, read all the essays at his own home, and at their next meeting, they were agreeably surprised to find, that, without concert, they had unanimously agreed. In awarding the prizes, the Committee took no responsibility as to the sentiments of the essays. Mr. A. thought there was a misapprehension of the sentiments of the writer. He did not understand the essay as attributing the increase of crime in any respect to our schools. The writer merely wished them to exert a much greater moral influence. Mr. A. thought there were passages in the essay which forbid any such construction as had been put upon it.

Mr. PEIRCE said, that if an avalanche had fallen upon him at the close of the reading of that essay, he knew not that he should have been more surprised than he was at the unexpected assault upon that humble production. And that surprise was deepened by the quarter from which it came. He had, for more than forty years spent in the cause of common schools, had some trials; but he did not expect, at this time, to be charged with traducing the schools of Massachusetts. He felt that there had been a misconception. He felt wounded, and injured, and wronged; and that he had a claim upon the gentleman who had applied such epithets to his essay, (Rev. Dr. SEARS, Secretary of the Board of Education of Massachusetts,) to retract the same. That gentleman had spoken well of his works, heretofore; and he ought to have been cautious, and deliberated, and been sure that he was right before he censured so severely.

The premises might be questioned, but he denied that it was illogical. The whole point of the essay was, that education did not restrain crime; and that, owing to the too little moral instruction, it had not accomplished what it might in this respect.

Rev. Dr. SEARS said that the circumstances in which he found himself were owing to the fact that speakers had been limited to ten minutes. The time for courtesy was denied. There was not time to express their personal feelings. They had objection to the issuing of such a prize essay. He took very great pleasure in repeating the

assurance of his high respect for the author of that essay, and for his motives. Their only question was as to the matter of fact. The ulterior object which the gentleman had in view, was one with which he entirely sympathized; but the essay was now an abstract matter, and *not personal*. With all this respect for the author and his intentions, he must say that the essay was just what it was taken for. He was accustomed to listen to such things, and he knew what it was. He had not a word to take back. But he would say, if there was any unjust implication of the author, then he would take that back.

He thought, in the case in hand, that if an essay is selected on account of its superior excellence, and receives a prize, he might put the question whether it did not involve the sanction of the Institute? Who would stand up in the British Parliament and say that the institute is not responsible for it? And, he asked, can you put a more mighty weapon into the hands of those who are endeavoring to sap the very foundations of our Common School system, than that very document? His official station was somewhat delicate in the matter. Particular reference was made to the schools in Massachusetts. He had the reports of all the schools in Massachusetts in his office, and he did say that the representations in that essay, in relation to what is done in those schools and by the School Committees, *are not correct*. He did not mean that they were designedly so. He knew they were not. Yet, he repeated, they were not correct.

Mr. BISHOP, of Boston, said he was persuaded that no person acquainted with the parties, could for a moment suppose that there was anything personal in the matter. There was a very strong tendency to regard our productions as identified with ourselves. The lecture, as he heard it, announced its theme as "Crime — its Cause and Cure." The characteristics of our schools were presented, and the necessity of more moral teaching. He thought it was a fair inference, that the influence of the schools was called in question. He would say as many kind things as could be said, of the author, but he would not take back a jot of what he had said of the essay itself. It was mischievous, and we should see it paraded, "The godless system of Protestant Education judged out of its own mouth." But if he had said anything unkind of the author, he would retract it.

A resolution was offered, directing the Curators not to publish the prize essay of Mr. PEIRCE.

Mr. HEDGES, of New-Jersey, said: If the essay could be accompanied with the discussion, he would not say a word. He respected the man who had spent forty years in the cause of Education. He assented, fully, to the principle with which the essay sets out, that *mere* intellectual education will not of itself restrain crime. He assented also to the declaration that too little attention is devoted to moral instruction. But while this is true, the argument of the essay was unsound. The inference that *Common School* Education is no restraint upon crime, is not correct. A comparison was made, and it was maintained that where there was the most Common School Education, there was the most crime. He solemnly protested against the doctrine.

Mr. GREENLEAF, of Brooklyn, approved most cordially of the honest intentions of the author. But he protested against the essay.

Mr. PHILBRICK, after expressing his high respect for the author of the essay, said that after listening to that essay, he felt that if it were permitted to go out, a wound would be inflicted on the cause. He proceeded to controvert some of the positions of the essay. He stood up to give his protest against the essay, on behalf of the Common Schools. He hoped the Institute would not publish it.

Mr. HUNTINGTON, of Waterbury, spoke of the points made in the essay, and maintained that it did justify the objections that had been made against it: and he protested against it being published as the Essay of the Institute.

Mr. PEIRCE said the word "cause" had been misapprehended. It was used in the sense of "occasion." When he penned that essay, he supposed it would have the entire approbation of his fellow-teachers and educators. He supposed they would all admit that they were deficient in moral instruction. But he was sorry to perceive that it was not so. He concluded by requesting that the essay might be restored to its author, and that he be allowed to return the money received for it.

Mr. THAYER moved that the request be granted as to the essay, but not as to refunding the money.

Dr. BACON suggested the publication of the essay, with an answer to be drawn up by the gentleman from Massachusetts, who had controverted it. He believed that the reasonings of the essay were fallacious.

Mr. THAYER said he could not accept the proposed amendment, because the essay would be used as a weapon against our School System, while the rejoinder would be suppressed.

After some further remarks, the question was taken on Mr. THAYER's motion, and it was agreed to.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON

Hon. HENRY BARNARD delivered a lecture on the "Practical Lessons to be drawn from an Educational Tour in Europe." The first lesson to be learned from a tour in Europe was, that the school was not a modern institution, nor one confined exclusively to any country or any particular religious denomination. It was not exclusively a Protestant Institution. From the beginning, the public school was the gift of the Church. Another lesson was, that we were not to judge of the condition of schools in Europe, by visiting a few of the best schools. As to the schools, there was not much to be learned of importance. The most important matter was, the graduated system of inspection. The system of inspection in Holland was the most efficient. And yet New York had once a system very much like it—the system of County Superintendence. As to the support of public schools, there was not much to learn. All of the best schools he had visited were pay schools. From all his observation, he was thoroughly satisfied that there should be a modified system of rate-bills. It was, fifty years ago, the boast of this State, that not a single native of Connecticut was *known* who could not read and write. And yet this State had rate-*bills*. He spoke of the district schools of this State as not being be*hind* other States. He did not object to free schools as a principle. He believed, however, the object could be obtained without laying the

whole tax upon property. Let every scholar in New York pay one dollar, and the fund would be doubled. The reason why he was in favor of this was, that it held the parent to a portion of the responsibility.

One of the subjects that especially interested him was *attendance*. Here was our weak point. In Massachusetts we have the largest attendance, and yet it appeared from the record that an average of one-third was absent. It is here we are to find this anomaly. Here, in this community, we find a large number of juvenile criminals. These never have been in the public schools. He believed we must go back to the compulsory statute. This is done in some European countries. To meet this difficulty, we need another class of schools. He referred to the "Industrial Schools," which are doing so much good in England and Scotland.

The department of education in which most are interested is that of teachers. But you will never see such a spectacle as this. In an assembly of 500 at Heidelberg, there was not one female. He believed they did not employ females in the schools, to any extent, in Europe. He believed this was a defect. But teaching was there a regular profession, requiring several years' preparation; and they feel that, when they have spent their lives in this work, they are entitled to a pension.

There are regular schools for the preparation of teachers. The teachers' seminaries are for teachers, and the model school annexed is the normal school.

In England, a portion of the School Fund (which is not greater than that of Massachusetts) is given to teaching pupils who, after rising through a regular grade, are admitted to the Teachers' Seminary.

The "Christian Brothers" is a self-denying community in the Catholic Church, who devote themselves to teaching. There are more than 3,000 of them employed in the parochial schools in Europe.

Teachers' Associations, in Germany, are aided by Government. Every teacher, in Germany, is entitled to his salary from the public chest, as much as any other Government officer. When a vacancy occurs, there is an open competition for the office.

Libraries of books on the subject of Education are established, to which teachers have access. The teacher, in Germany, has a house provided, in addition to his salary.

Under the influence of this system, some of the schools have attained a high reputation. They aim at the thorough cultivation of all the faculties. The results of this system have not yet been realized.

The influence of these schools is everywhere counteracted by the bad habits of the people, and the suppression of liberty by the Government. But either the schools will change the Government, or the Government will change the schools.

But after all this is said, the schools of Europe, under the disadvantages of their governmental influences, do not turn out such practical men as our schools, with our governmental influences. A young man brought up in a New England Common School, will *make a better business* man than the best Prussian scholar, depressed

under their despotic government. But the superiority of New England is not to be attributed solely to the District School.

Much of the efficiency of the European schools is to be attributed to just such associations as this.

Mr. BARNARD concluded his lecture by a tribute to the memory of the late Rev. THOMAS H. GALLAUDET, who was, in his view, one of the greatest practical educators ever known.

CALL OF STATES.

After the lecture, the call of States was resumed. JOHN KINGSBURY, Esq., of Providence, said that the Schools of Rhode Island made great advance under the administration of Mr. BARNARD, now Superintendent in Connecticut. The Schools had not gone backward, but they had not made the same progress that they did under that gentleman's superintendence.

Rev. Dr. SEARS, Superintendent of the Common Schools of Massachusetts, said that Massachusetts holds to a sort of Pestalozzian method of developing itself. They did not hold that their system was the best that could be adopted for all circumstances. Their system was founded on the principle that education must rest on a religious basis. They would be glad to see more of moral influence introduced than there is now. The Bible is used. Religious or devotional services are introduced, according to the taste of the teacher; but excluding sectarianism. The progress of Massachusetts is slow, she is feeling her way with caution. Her people are all heartily in favor of the educational movement.

The present system has been materially advanced by the establishment of the Board of Education. They do not interfere with the local committees, and they are entirely independent of political or sectarian party. All parties unite in keeping it separate. The present Whig Governor has just appointed the Democratic Governor of the last year, to the vacancy occurring this year. The same rule is observed as to religious denominations.

The object of the public fund is, to secure the coöperation of the towns in the legal system, and to act so far on the towns as to bring them into the State system. The theory of Massachusetts is, that the support of the schools shall depend not on the State, nor upon rate bills, but upon voluntary taxation of the towns by themselves. The Normal Schools are supported by the State, and the pupils of these schools receive assistance, in proportion to their distance from the schools.

The system has been very greatly changed by the introduction of the gradation system. The tendency is that way. After 1854, the districts are to be abolished, unless the town vote to the contrary. Another law requires high schools to be established in towns of a certain number of inhabitants. To meet the wants of these schools, the Legislature has established forty-eight scholarships in the colleges, the candidates to be selected by the Board of Education. Agents are supported to go before the people with the views of the Legislature and the Board. A practical teacher is employed as an agent, to confer with all the committees in the towns, and assembling all the schools at one, and going through all the exercises of the school, as an exemplifi-

cation of what is taught in the Normal Schools. This introduces all the improvements to all the committees and teachers. $4,200 annually, is also appropriated to Teachers' Institutes, of which about twenty are held; and permanent arrangements are made with a number of the most distinguished professors, to attend and instruct in these Institutes, thus securing the coöperation of the Universities.

By having a permanent corps of teachers, they have the advantage of unity. They have exact arrangements, so that the people and teachers may know just what to expect. And it was his opinion that these Institutes were doing more than anything else to promote the advancement of the cause. The people are interested. They never have found a place large enough to hold the audiences that assemble toward the close of the week.

After all, it was the spirit of the people that gave the character to the system. It is because all the people took hold of it as their cause.

Dr. CUTTER, of New-Hampshire, said the schools were supported by tax, as in Massachusetts. The schools are superintended by a town committee. They had, also, a Board of Education, composed of commissioners from each county. They meet twice a year, and make reports from each county, which are printed for the use of the committees and teachers. Most of the counties hold Teachers' Institutes, which are supported by taking three per cent. of the public money. The State is progressing educationally. Their system is well adapted to the condition of the State.

Mr. LIBBEY, of Portland, said that the large territory, and sparse population of Maine deprived them of many of the facilities enjoyed by the mother State—Massachusetts. But still, there had been a very decided improvement in their common schools. Each town is required to appoint a committee of three, to visit the schools; and they have the power of dismissing a teacher.

In the cities and large towns he thought their schools would compare well with the schools in other States.

He stated some interesing facts to show what improvement had been made. A gentleman here had expressed the desire to see a school without books. He could take him back fifty-two years, to a school which had but three books in it, except what belonged to the teacher.

Mr. TURNER, of Richmond, said he could not tell of an inexhaustible fund capable of affording an education to all the children of the Commonwealth. He could not tell of school-houses, such as we see here, yet he could say that Virginia had ample means of education. They had their old University, justly the pride of the State. But there was no public school system. There were private schools, however, all over the State, kept to a great extent, by New-England ladies. They have a school fund, but the circumstances of the population prevent its doing much good. And yet, there are no people who better appreciate a good education; and they expend vast sums for the education of their children.

Dr. MITCHELL said he had the pleasure, a few years ago, of passing seven successive years over the State of Maryland; and his first errand *was to place a Bible* in every public school. Maryland has a *good common school system*, supported at the public expense. The

Bible was put into every school in 1839, and when some of the teachers demurred against its use, the commissioners required them to teach every scholar, capable of it, to read a portion of the Bible every day. They have a very excellent High School in Baltimore, which he thought gave the idea of the New-York Free Academy. A University, recently chartered, had the power of conferring the degree of Master of School-keeping, making teaching a learned profession.

THURSDAY EVENING.

Prof. GUYOT delivered a lecture on the method of teaching Geography. Geography was defined, he said, as a description of the globe. But when he opened the book, he did not find the globe described. It is not the objects that compose the globe that we are to study; but it is their association, making one great whole. Geography is to show the association, the arrangement, and the relations of these objects. If we describe, as Geography ought to do, we must look upon them in their arrangement and in their order. We seek also the relation of cause and effect; and here we come to physical description, and terrestrial physics. And then if we go on and take in man, and all his physical relations, this gives us a new aspect.

The true method of teaching Geography is, to prepare the pupil to go on from beginning to end; for there are things adapted to the capacities of the different ages of the pupils. The method pursued by so many manuals, of beginning with the relation of the globe to the sun, is wrong, because the young pupil cannot understand it. We must begin by taking cognizance of the geographical description of the earth. He would not begin with civil Geography, but with the simple physical descriptive Geography. We have here a natural division: 1. Physical Description; 2. Terrestrial Physics; 3. Historical Description.

In this lecture, he would confine himself to the first of these, because it was physical description that belonged to the common school. The teacher is a guide; and the book is a guide, but it ought to be nothing else. Nature should be the great teacher. We study the globe. But the globe is a great thing, and we cannot take it in our hands. Therefore, we must take a good representation of the globe. We must begin with this, and not with a book. The first lesson, therefore, should not be composed of definitions. Let us ascend Bunker Hill Monument, for instance, and look over the scenes, and say, here is a bay, here is an island, &c., and then mark it on paper, and tell the pupil "This is a map." This will bridge over the chasm between the child's mind and the representation we make of the globe. We must not only resort to facts, but to imagination, in order to give the child an idea of those parts of the globe which cannot be seen. This the lecturer illustrated with maps and charts, giving physical descriptions of the different parts of the globe. When we get an idea of the map into the mind of the child, let us go on with the map and no book at all. He would have him look at the map, and grasp the forms, and *the comparative* size and extent of land and water, the different continents, &c. If you put in the details, names, &c., the mind is confused.

Thus we see that the intuitive method is the first to be presented to

the mind of the child. It presents it in an intelligible form, and prepares him for a future advance.

Here he would begin other courses. The characteristic of the second stage is *analytical*. We must go on and take the characteristic forms of the continents. And here, the pupil must be required to construct a map from memory.

He proceeded to illustrate these views in an exceedingly interesting manner, with charts; and, among others, he presented and explained outline maps of Germany, in which, by means of a description of the mountains and rivers, the way is prepared for understanding the civil geography of that most intricate portion of Europe. The historical importance of this, he said, was incalculable, as the history of the middle ages was identified with this country. And also that the civil divisions of the country accord with the physical separation of territories, so that they are a kind of reprint of the natural divisions; and the consolidation of Germany is almost a physical impossibility, while France is one great open country.

After the lecture, Mr. HUNTINGTON read a letter from Lieutenant Governor POND, who is soon to became the acting Governor of the State, expressing his regret at not being able to attend the meeting, with the deep interest he felt in the object.

On motion of Mr. BAKER, of Gloucester, the usual votes of thanks were passed, beginning with a complimentary resolution to Mr. THAYER, the late President.

Mr. THAYER responded to the vote of thanks, and said he had been twenty-three years an officer in this Institute, and had felt proud and gratified in all the posts to which he had been called.

He had hoped, on declining a reëlection to the presidency, to be permitted to retire to a private station; but as the Institute had thought proper to decide otherwise, he should acquiesce in silence, in the position they had assigned him.

He rejoiced to leave the chair of the Institute at a time of such remarkable prosperity in the Association. It never was more flourishing. There had been in attendance on the present session, a larger number of the original members than at any session in the last ten years. Delegates from, at least, seventeen different States had been with us, and a lively interest was manifested by all.

He congratulated the Institute on the choice of so able, worthy, and accomplished a successor as they had made, and doubted not that, under his guidance, it would continue to thrive and do good for many years yet to come.

In addressing the teachers, he took occasion to allude to some remarks made on the first day of the session, respecting position, which he should be sorry to see carried out in the school-room. He would not like to allow pupils to assume all imaginable positions. While there should be frequent change of position, a proper one should always be required. In all the schools with which he was acquainted, there was a sufficiently frequent change of position. He did not believe the statements which had been made in regard to the curvature of the spine *among the ladies*. He was sure that the cases as stated, were *exaggerated in number* and in frequency. He could not say how it

might be in fashionable society, where young ladies live in luxurious indolence, keeping late hours, turning day into night, &c., but he knew it was not true of the substantial class of society.

The best calisthenics or gymnastics, he said, were to be found in the domestic labor of the family. He believed this was the best means to prevent the curvature of the spine. He did not believe that the gentlemen who had made these remarks, would like to see the "rompings" which they recommended, in the streets of New Haven, or in their own drawing-rooms. If they had private accommodations on their own premises, it might do. But we must pay some regard to public opinion.

Mr. THAYER proceeded to give words of wholesome advice and encouragement to the younger portion of the teachers, and, in bidding them farewell, gave them a cordial welcome to Chauncy Hall School, over which he presided in Boston.

Mr. HUNTINGTON, Mr. BABCOCK, and Dr. HOOKER, responded on behalf of Connecticut and New Haven, and the meeting was closed with the Doxology, to the tune of "Old Hundred."

The meeting was one of great interest throughout. It was gratifying to see so able a body of teachers, to the number of five or six hundred, assembled for the purpose of advancing the cause of education; and the high character of all the exercises must tend to elevate the teacher's profession in the estimation of the public.

Resident Editors' Table.

GEORGE ALLEN, Jr., ...*Boston.*
C. J. CAPEN, ...*Dedham.*
} RESIDENT EDITORS. {
ELBRIDGE SMITH, *Cambridge.*
E. S. STEARNS, *W. Newton.*

OFFICERS OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION, FOR THE YEARS 1853–4.

President. Thomas Sherwin, Boston.

Vice Presidents. John Kingsbury, Providence, R. I.; Samuel Pettes, Roxbury; Barnas Sears, Newton; Gideon F. Thayer, Boston; Horace Mann, Yellow Springs, O.; Geo. N. Briggs, Pittsfield; Benj. Greenleaf, Bradford; Dan'l Kimball, Needham; Wm. Russell, Lancaster; Henry Barnard, Hartford, Conn.; Wm. H. Wells, Newburyport; Dyer H. Sanborn, Hopkinton, N.H.; Alfred Greenleaf, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Cyrus Peirce, Waltham; Solomon Adams, Boston; Nathan Bishop, Boston; Wm. D. Swan, Boston; Charles Northend, Salem; Samuel S. Greene, Providence, R. I.; Roger S. Howard, Bangor, Me.; Benjamin Labaree, Middlebury, Vt.; Thomas Cushing, Jr., Boston; Rufus Putnam, Salem; Ariel Parish, Springfield; Leander Wetherell, Rochester, N. Y.; Ethan A. Andrews, New Britain, Ct.; Thomas Baker, Gloucester; John Batchelder, Lynn; Daniel Leach, Roxbury; Amos Perry, Providence, R. I.; Nathan Hedges, Newark, N. J.; Christopher T. Keith, Providence, R. I.; Lorin Andrews, Columbus, Ohio; John D. Philbrick, New Britain, Ct.; Xenophon Heywood, Troy, N.Y.;

James F. Babcock, New Haven, Ct.; Thomas H. Burrowes, Lancaster, Pa.

Recording Secretary. D. B. Hagar, Jamaica Plain.

Corresponding Secretaries. George Allen, Jr., Boston; Charles J. Capen, Boston.

Treasurer. William D. Ticknor, Boston.

Curators. Nathan Metcalf, Boston; Jacob Batchelder, Lynn; Samuel Swan, Boston.

Censors. William J. Adams, Boston; Joseph Hale, Boston; Joshua Bates, Jr., Boston.

Counsellors. Daniel Mansfield, Cambridge; Samuel W. King, Lynn; D. P. Galloup, Salem; A. A. Gamwell, Providence, R. I.; Elbridge Smith, Cambridge; Solomon Jenner, New York; F. N. Blake, Barnstable; Charles Hutchins, Providence, R. I.; Leonard Hazletine, New York; David S. Rowe, Westfield; Samuel W. Bates, Boston; D. N. Camp, New Britain, Ct.

THE CAUSE IN CONNECTICUT.

AMONG the very pleasing elements of the meeting at New Haven, of which we give a full report this month, was the organization of a State Teachers' Association. The "live" teahers in that State are bestirring themselves in earnest, and they appear to have engraven "NO FAIL" on their frontlets.

Eight years ago, in some of the counties there was not a single *permanent* teacher employed. Now they are found in all the counties of the State. *Graded schools* have been organized in all the cities and principal manufacturing villages, in which are employed men who intend to make teaching a profession. The salaries of teachers have risen more than *fifty per cent.* in the last five years. A large number of beautiful and costly school houses have been erected, and measures taken to educate teachers for the same.

The State Normal School which was opened in New Britain three and a half years since, has received the warm commendation of the Governor in his annual messages, and at the last meeting of the Legislature was placed upon a substantial basis, by the appropriation of $4000 a year for five years. About *six hundred* teachers have already enjoyed the benefits of the institution. Teachers' Institutes have been held annually in every county during the last five years.

The last Legislature authorized the employment of convicts in the State Prison at Wethersfield to manufacture school apparatus, and sets are to be furnished to towns at half price.

The following individuals were elected officers of the State Teachers' Association, for the year ensuing:

President, E. B. Huntington, Waterbury; *V. President*, Wm. H. Russell, New Haven Co., N. P. Barrows, Hartford Co., G. Sherwood, Litchfield Co., E. A. Lawrence, Fairfield Co., S. Chase, Middlesex Co., L. S. Camp, New London Co., E. T. Fitch, S. Windham Co., E. F. Strong, Tolland Co.; *Recording Secretary*, D. N. Camp, New Britain; *Corresponding Secretary*, J. D. Philbrick, New Britain; *Treasurer*, F. C. Brownell, Wallingford.

The Association resolved to publish a periodical. Over *three hundred dollars* were pledged for its support, on the spot, and a fair list of subscribers obtained in addition. Macti pueri! May success attend you.

CONNECTICUT STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

THIS body was organized several years since, but hitherto it has not been very efficient in its operations. At the recent meeting of the American Institute of Instruction at New Haven, efforts were made to revive it and to unite the teachers of Connecticut under its banner. A new board of officers was elected, and as Mr. Barnard had announced his determination to dissolve his connection with the Common School Journal for Connecticut, which he has so long and so ably conducted, it was determined to establish a "Teachers' Paper" for the State. The sum of *four hundred dollars* was pledged on the spot to sustain it one year. A board of editors was appointed, consisting of the following gentlemen; Henry Barnard, John D. Philbrick, David N. Camp, E. B. Huntington, T. W. T. Curtis, and E. A. Lawrence. They do not expect, however, to do without the Massachusetts Teacher.

The next annual meeting will be held some time in October. The precise time and place will be announced in due time.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES IN CONNECTICUT FOR 1853.

During the month of October, one Institute will be held in each County of the State. The precise time of holding the several Institutes has not been fixed. The following are the places named: Southington, Branford, Middletown, Brookfield, Winsted, South Coventry, Plainfield, Mystic Bridge.

D. N. Camp, Professor in the State Normal School of *Connecticut*, received at the recent commencement of *Yale College*, the honorary degree of A. M.

M. T. Brown, Esq., who was for four years the principal of the North Grammar School in Manchester, N. H., from which place he was last spring called to the honorable and responsible post of Principal of the Model Department of the Connecticut State Normal School at New Britain, has lately been appointed Principal of the George Street Grammar School in New Haven, with the salary of $1200 a year. The people of New Haven have waked up to the importance of improving their system of public schools. They have commenced in the right way. They erected an excellent building and furnished it with the Boston school furniture. They then said, "We must have a *first rate teacher*, and we are willing to pay a *first rate price.*" Mr. Brown has already earned a high reputation in New Hampshire. New Haven now stands next to Boston, in the salary paid to teachers of grammar schools.

At the recent commencement of Hamilton College the honorary degree of A. M. was conferred upon J. W. Bulkley, of Williamsburgh, N. Y. Mr. Bulkley has done much to make the profession of teaching respectable. He has been president of the N. Y. State Teachers' Association, and has been for some time principal of a very large public school in Williamsburg. Recently, he has been appointed Principal of the Normal School, about to be established in that city on a plan similar to that in the city of New. York.

The next annual meeting of the Connecticut State Teachers' Association will be held at Middletown, commencing on the evening of the 24th of October, and continuing through the 25th. Teachers from the neighboring States are cordially invited to attend.

CONNECTICUT STATE NORMAL SCHOOL.

Mr. J. W. Tuck, the late accomplished sub-master of the Washington School, Roxbury, has been appointed to one of the Professorships in the State Normal School, Conn. Mr. Vose, of Milton, succeeds Mr. Tuck, — Salary, $600.

PERSONAL ITEM.

Mr. L. L. Camp, a graduate of the Connecticut State Normal School, has been appointed principal of a Grammar School in New London, with the salary of $700.

The article which we promised to insert in this number of the Teacher, has been necessarily omitted, to make room for the report of the transactions of the American Institute of Instruction.

If the time now spent in attempting to make pupils find out for themselves the names of words by spelling them, were employed in pronouncing words without spelling them, we believe the pupils of our primary schools would make in the first two years full twice the advancement they now do.—*Ohio Journal.*

NOTICE.

The Connecticut State Teachers' Association will hold its next semiannual meeting at Middletown, commencing Monday, Oct. 24th, at 2 o'clock, and continuing through Tuesday evening, Oct. 25th.

Teachers' Institutes for Connecticut will be held as follows:

Oct. 3 South Coventry and Brookfield.
" 10 Southington and Mystic.
" 17 Branford and Plainfield.
" 24 Middletown.
" 31 Litchfield.

Each Institute commencing on Monday evening and closing with the exercises on Friday evening.

PRIZE ESSAYS.

The following Prizes for original Essays are offered by the Massachusetts Teachers' Association:—

To the members of the Association, for the best Essay, on either of the following subjects, a prize of *twenty dollars.*

1. "The importance of increasing the number of Female Teachers qualified to give instruction in the Higher Departments of Education."
2. "The Evils and Remedies of Whispering, or Communicating, in School."

To the female teachers of the State, for the best Essay, on either of the following subjects, a prize of *twenty dollars.*

1. "Best Method of Conducting a Primary School."
2. "Thoroughness in Teaching."

The Essays must be forwarded to the Secretary, *Charles J. Capen, Esq., Latin School, Boston,* on or before the 15th of October. Each Essay should be accompanied by a sealed envelope, enclosing the name of the writer. The envelopes accmpanying the unsuccessful Essays will not be opened. The prizes will be awarded by an impartial Committee; but no prize will be awarded to an Essay that is not deemed worthy of one. The successful Essays will be regarded as *the property* of the Association.

W. H. Wells, President.

Newburyport, April 18, 1853.

THE

MASSACHUSETTS TEACHER.

Vol. VI, No. 11.] BY THE RESIDENT EDITORS. [Nov. 1853.

THE PRIZE ESSAY. — CRIME; — ITS CAUSE AND CURE.

THE late discussion in regard to the Prize Essay read before the American Institute, at New Haven, on "Crime—its Cause and Cure," has excited the attention of educators and philanthropists throughout the country. It was a singular fact that the committee of gentlemen who read the essay and awarded it the prize, had not been able to discover that the educational system of New England was referred to in terms of strong derogation, nor had they found in it, what nearly all who took part in the debate seemed to have found, anything which they deemed a libel upon the educational system of this part of the country.

There was, without doubt, much misapprehension of the author's meaning, in the first part of the essay; and much that was not intended to apply to our system, was understood as having a direct bearing upon it. This was unfortunate, and might have been avoided, had the author entered into a fuller expression of his views as to the relative merits of the systems of different countries. The manner in which statistics were applied we believe to be erroneous, and the conclusions unreasonable and unsatisfactory. But a careful perusal of the essay in question, will, we think, have a more favorable impression on the public mind in regard to it, than would be entertained from the aspect which it presented to the highly distinguished gentlemen who participated in the debate; and will satisfy all, that, although statistics may have been misapplied, due credit *was given to New England* for the relative superiority of her *educational system* in respect to its moral character and influ-

ence. Such superiority was distinctly admitted in that part of the essay to which we have referred.

Admitting that the author entered into no especial laudation of our system of education, yet we cannot see that its comparative excellence was underrated, nor that there appear, after a careful perusal, real grounds for so much severe censure.

We trust the essay will be published, so that its fallacies, if it contains any, may be exposed; and also that the truly noble views which have been advanced in the latter part of it, may exercise their proper influence. The moral influence of our common school system of instruction is not so strong as it might be, and it was the chief object of the essay to show this, and point out the remedy. It therefore deserves attention. There are propositions in it which are somewhat startling, and which open a wide field for discussion. We trust that they will be fully considered.

We would now call attention to the following communication.

For The Massachusetts Teacher.

MR. EDITOR.—The last number of the "Teacher" contains a report of the doings of the American Institute of Instruction, at their late session in New Haven. The reporter attempts to give an abstract or outline of the essay, read by me before the Institute at that time.

With the *general fairness* of the report in relation to the essay, and of the debate which ensued thereon, I had no fault to find. But there are one or two points misrepresented or overstated, (it is presumed without any evil intent,) which I wish to set right, that the misconception, already prevalent to some extent in regard to the character of that production, may not be confirmed and more widely spread through the medium of your journal.

On page 310, fourth paragraph, the report holds the following language, viz.: — "He (Mr. P.) doubted whether, when we have simply taught one to read, and no more, we have really done him any good. Facts would show that to make one good, we must do something more than to teach him to read and write. *This of itself only makes men more capable of doing evil.*"

Such is the language of the report. The italicizing is mine. Now I will give you the language of the essay. "Facts will show that to make men good, we must do something more for them than teach them to read and write. Knowledge, an enlightened intellect, unaided and unrestrained by moral culture, *may* only serve to make a man the greater villain." This is *quite* different from the language of the report.

Intellectual culture makes a man more capable of doing *either good or evil.*

Again, the following language on page 212, paragraph first, professedly setting forth the doctrine of the essay, does not do it justice. "Legislatures have seemed to take it for granted that all that was necessary to reform men, was to enlighten them. A *school* does not generally embrace the idea of inculcating good moral principles and good manners. The same thing is true of our school-books. And the same defect runs through our Normal Schools, and the examination of teachers." The essay does not say *this* either of legislatures, or schools, or normal schools, or examinations, or books.—The essay says:—"Legislators and educators and *all* have been *too much* in the way of thinking that in order to reform the world it is only necessary to enlighten it. Look at our legislation, our books, our examinations, our rules and regulations; yea, the whole school movement. A good school with us, *in the ordinary acceptation of the terms*, is understood to mean one in which the languages and sciences and polite accomplishments are well taught, where a boy may be prepared for college, or for the counting-room; and a girl fitted for polished society. By a *good school* is *not* meant,—*I will not say in any degree*, but, *first of all and chiefly*,—a school in which sound principles and good manners are inculcated; where the cardinal virtues of justice, temperance, and truth, occupy the *same* platform with grammar, history, and arithmetic." The essay does not set forth that either our legislatures or our schools *repudiate* or *totally neglect* morals in education, but that they do not *sufficiently insist* upon them, they do not put them on an equality with the intellectual branches of study.

The debate, which seems to be pretty faithfully reported, is almost throughout a misrepresentation of the doctrine of the essay. Those who took part in it, speak of the essay as though it imputed the increase of crime and immorality directly to *education*, to the *education of our schools*. But it is not so. The essay only asserts that the education of our schools has *not prevented* the increase of crime; that it has not checked it so much as it *might* have done; and for the reason that there has been a deficiency of moral training in them. It closes with an earnest exhortation to teachers, and all others interested in the subject, to give that attention to *moral instruction* which its relative importance demands.

It is my intention to publish the essay, so that all who wish it, may be able to judge of its character, and see whether it merits the denunciation it has received of being "*a slander and a libel*" upon our common schools.

Respectfully yours,

C. PEIRCE.

Waltham, Oct. 12, 1853.

POPULAR EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

(From the Edinburgh Review for July, 1853.)

THE man still lives who can remember the United States of America as the humble dependencies of Great Britain. A few remote colonies fringing the shores of the Atlantic, hemmed in by mountains and forests, had made little impression on the wilderness. Almost without roads, a mere bridle path sufficed for their weekly mail. No banks nor moneyed institutions gave aid to commerce. Agriculture resorted to the rudest tools. A small class of vessels confined to the coasting trade, the fisheries, or an occasional voyage to the West Indies or Europe, formed their shipping. Manufactures and the mechanic arts were in their cradle. A little molasses was distilled into rum. A few coarse cloths were made in the hand loom, and so inferior were the sheep that a traveller predicted broadcloth could never be manufactured.

Some iron had been melted with charcoal, but furnaces and forges languished under jealous governors. The vast beds of coal which underlie the Middle States were unknown, and cotton, the great basis of modern manufactures, had not blossomed in the Colonies. The policy of the mother country was to make marts for her merchants, and to restrict the Colonies to the cultivation of tobacco, indigo, rice, and to breadstuffs, and the shipment of these staples, with staves, lumber, and naval stores, to the mother country. These articles were dispensed by England to the residue of Europe.

The population of these Colonies was less than 3,000,000; and their chief seaports, Boston, Newport, New York, and Philadelphia, contained each from ten to twenty thousand inhabitants.

But the Colonists, although poor, and indebted to the British merchants, had carried with them from their native land an inalienable love of freedom; were tenacious of their rights, and resolute in their opposition to excise and stamp acts. They spurned the idea of taxation without representation. England was sadly misguided; a seven years' war ensued. The British arms, often victorious, achieved no permanent success, and were finally foiled by an endurance never surpassed. The Colonists prevailed, but their success was almost ruinous. At the close of a protracted war they found their country impoverished, their Union dissolving, their seaports desolate, their ships decayed, and the flower of their youth withered in the field or in the prison-ship. From this period of gloom and exhaustion little progress was made until the adoption of the Constitution in 1788, and the funding of the public debt under the wise administration of Washington.

We now begin a new era. Let us consider what advance the United States have made from this dawn of the nation in the sixty years which have ensued. The country has shown a renovating power. The flood of population has swept over the Alleghanies, crossed the blue Ohio and Father of Waters, followed the shores of the Great Lakes, and is rolling up the Missouri of the West. Its advancing tide has already enlivened the coasts of Florida and Texas, and reached the shores of Oregon and California. The thirteen States have swelled to thirty-one, and the national territory now covers 3,000,000 of square miles, mostly adapted to cultivation.

A prolific and almost exhaustless soil invites the Western husbandman.

The implements of husbandry, improved by thousands of patents, have adapted themselves to a country in which land is cheap and labor dear, and some of them compete successfully with English tools in foreign markets.

Cotton has been acclimated, and gives yearly its 3,000,000 of bales. Tobacco yields its 170,000 hogsheads, and sugar of recent introduction, a similar amount. Such is the capacity of the country for breadstuffs, that the failure of a crop in Europe draws out a supply not only sufficient to check the march of famine, but to baffle all previous calculation. Manufactures have become firmly rooted. The manufacture of iron annually reaches to 600,000 tons. Not less than 700,000 bales of cotton also are consumed in the country, if we may rely on the late census.

Not only do short-horn Durhams graze on the plains on the Ohio, but the Spanish and French merinos and Saxon flocks have been imported, and the native race been gradually improved.

The home manufacture now consumes 52,000,000 pounds of native wool, besides large imports of foreign from Turkey, Buenos Ayres, and Africa. A single State manufactures boots and shoes to the yearly value of £6,000,000 sterling, and exports glass wares, cotton goods, and wooden ware to India, South America, and the Mediterranean. Singular as it may appear, the United States now draw some of their raw materials from Great Britain. Large shipments of skins and hides are often made from London and Liverpool, to be tanned into leather by cheap and expeditious processes in the hemlock forests of New York.

Before the Revolution an American book was a rarity; but now rags are imported from England and Italy, converted into paper by patented machines, and circulated in books and journals through North America. Some of these journals issue *50,000 copies daily*, and there are publishers who find an an-

nual vent for 150,000 copies of geographies and arithmetics. It is doubtless true that less attention is given in the States to more costly and delicate products of art than in Europe; but it is also well understood, that many of the most expert manufacturers declined to send their goods to the London Exhibition, for they preferred the home market to the European, and wished to invite no rivalry in goods suited to the States.

The late census exhibits the rapid progress of the mechanic arts throughout the Union. In other departments the United States have not been dormant. While Mexico has for sixty years either receded or remained stationary in the population of its states and cities, the United States have increased from 3,000,000 to 26,000,000, and now exhibit an annual accession of 1,100,000 people.

The city of New York, with its suburbs, presents 700,000 inhabitants; Philadelphia, 500,000; Boston, with its environs, 300,000; and Baltimore nearly 200,000 in one compact body. Cincinnati and New Orleans respectively exceed 100,000; and St. Louis, Louisville, Pittsburg, Albany, and Buffalo, follow close in their rear.

The country is threaded by numerous post roads, interlaced by 13,000 miles of railway, and still more closely united by a greater length of telegraph wires. By means of these, a message can be sent hundreds of miles for a shilling, and the merchant at New Orleans can in the same day charter ships at New York or Boston, and order their cargoes from St. Louis or Cincinnati; while the orator addresses in the same hour audiences in all the large cities of the Union.

The mails, accelerated by steam, bear letters from Savannah to Eastport for a stamp costing little more than the penny postage of England. The foreign trade exhibits an aggregate of £80,000,000 sterling of imports and exports. The inland commerce exceeds the foreign, while the shipping at this moment, December, 1852, amounts to 4,000,000 of tonnage, and is annually growing at the rate of 300,000 tons.*

Banking houses and insurance companies are established throughout the Union. Steamers throng the coast and rivers to the amount of 400,000 tons, and are claimed as an American invention. In other respects, the advance of this nation is interesting to England. The United States, not content with

* "Registered, enrolled, and licensed tonnage of

United States, June 30th, 1850,	3,535,454.28
June 30th, 1851,	3,772,439.43
Vessels built in the United States, year ending June	
1850, 1,360: tonnage,	272,218.54
June 30, 1851, 1,367: tonnage,	298,203.60
June 30, 1852, 1,448: tonnage,	351,494

See U. S. documents, Commerce and Navigation, 1852 and 1853."

the vast emigration they annually absorb, have borrowed at least one-third of the sailors of the British nation, and placing them before the mast, officer their ships with young Americans. They then navigate them with half the crews employed by other nations, viz., with two or three men only to the 100 tons, command high freights, and perform their voyages with certainty and despatch.

They have copied, too, the railway, almost as soon as England had invented it; and have not only given it a wide diffusion, but import from England a large part of their rails, and then manage their iron ways with less expense, with more profit, and with lower charges than are customary in England. By what appliances has this nation, in a little more than a half a century, thus emerged from poverty and weakness, absorbed and civilized the outcasts of Europe, and been able to achieve such remarkable changes?

The inquiry is one of no common interest to the world. Should the population of the United States progress for one century more as it has done for the past sixty years, and the Union continue, the number of its inhabitants would exceed 300,000,000. Such a people, fronting on two oceans, with a temperate climate and vast expanse of country, must exert, under any circumstances, an increasing influence over the globe. What agencies are at work to shape and temper that influence? The progress of the United States of America is often ascribed to their form of government; this combines many features of the English, and is borrowed in part from the institutions of England. It has doubtless aided their growth, although it does not uniformly draw into the public service the highest order of character. But republics have neither stability nor safety, unless founded on virtue and intelligence. We have seen the republics of Mexico and La Plata alternating with despotism; and the republic of France revolutionized in a night. We must look behind the Constitution of the United States at the knowledge and virtue which characterize their citizens, at the culture and training which foster those indispensable requisites.

Education is not indissolubly connected with any frame of government. It may be cherished and flourish under a limited monarchy or a republic. It is requisite for the full development of each. And while efforts are made to extend it in England, it may not be amiss to inquire how far it has been cultivated, and what shape it is assuming, on the other side of the Atlantic.

If the plant shows a novel hue or more vigorous growth west of the Atlantic, the system of the western gardener demands attention. And if we find there unprecedented results from the action of mind upon matter, we may well ask what has roused *that mind to action*; what has given an impulse and direction to

its movements. Let us take a brief view of education in the United States.

Many of the early settlers of New England and the Middle States were men of letters: they carried with them a love for learning to the wilderness. They considered it essential to their progress, and founded schools and colleges as soon as they had gained a foothold in the country. Schools soon multiplied; colleges were established in Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Jersey. The fame of Harvard, Yale, and Princeton, reached the mother country before the Revolution, and found many benefactors in the British Isles. In these colleges were reared some of the prominent leaders in the Revolution, and many of the statesmen who framed the Constitution.

The State of Massachusetts, one of the oldest of the original thirteen, was particularly active in the cause of letters. As early as 1635 the public Latin school was founded in Boston, and soon after, every town containing 100 families was required to maintain a school, with a teacher competent to fit youth for the university. Three colleges were subsequently founded in Massachusetts.

The deep-seated respect for learning is evinced by the Constitution and laws adopted by this State. By its Constitution (chap. v, sec. 2,) it is made the duty of the magistrates and legislatures, "To cherish the interests of literature and science, and all seminaries of them, and to countenance and inculcate the principles of humanity and general benevolence, public and private charity, industry and frugality, honesty and punctuality in their dealings, sincerity and good humor, all social affections and generous sentiments among the people."

In accordance with the Constitution, the revised statutes provide for a school, to be opened at least six months annually, in each town containing fifty householders; for similar schools, and instruction in bookkeeping, surveying, geometry and algebra, in all towns containing 500 householders; and in towns containing 4000 inhabitants, for the continuance of such schools for at least ten months, with masters competent to teach rhetoric, logic, history, and the Greek and Latin languages.

By such statutes (chap. xxiii, sec. 7,) provision is expressly made for instruction in morals; and all teachers are required to "impress on the minds of the children and youth committed to their care and instruction, the principles of piety, justice, and sacred regard to truth, love to their country, humanity and universal benevolence, sobriety, industry, frugality, chastity, moderation and benevolence, and those other virtues which are the ornament of human society."

By sec. 8 of the same chapter it is provided that "It shall be the duty of the resident ministers of the gospel, the select

men and school committee in the several towns, to exert their influence, and use their best endeavors that the youth of their town shall regularly attend the schools established for their instruction."

To defray the expenses of education no specified tax is imposed, and it remains optional with each town to raise any amount found requisite. But a school fund has been formed, and no town can participate in the income of the fund, unless it raises by tax at least one dollar and a half for every child within its limits, between the age of five and fifteen years; and the spirit of the citizens is evinced by the fact, that the average sum raised by volutary tax for each child within the age for education, is nearly threefold the amount prescribed by statute.

Boston, the ancient capital of this State, has ever taken a distinguished part in the culture of learning. Its Latin school and other institutions stood high before the Revolution, but have made great progress since.

Before this period, females did not participate in the benefits of the public schools; but in 1789 they were permitted to attend. Down to 1817 pupils were not admitted to the public schools until they had learned to read; but in that year primary schools were opened for both sexes. In 1821 a public high school was established in Boston, which now contains nearly 200 pupils, under four highly educated teachers, and gives instruction in drawing, bookkeeping, elocution, the higher mathematics, logic, philosophy, the French and Spanish languages. The public Latin school, with five able masters, and 195 pupils, prepares youth for the universities.

A normal school accommodating 200 girls, who have completed with success the course of studies in the grammar schools, under the instruction of five accomplished teachers, qualifies every year nearly 100 graduates to perform the duties of teacher in the schools for the younger children.

Reading, spelling, arithmetic, and music are taught in all the primary schools, and to these branches are added in the grammar schools, writing, geography, English grammar, history, and exercises in writing the English language for all the pupils, and declamation for the boys. In proportion to her population, Boston expends annually a larger amount of money for public schools than any city in the United States. Boston has now more than $1,200,000 invested in schoolhouses; and with a population of 138,000, has 22,000 in her public schools, employs 350 teachers, and expends annually more than $300,000 for the education of the people. All these schools are free, and three officers are employed to look after truant and idle children, and to induce their parents to send them to school. And yet Boston is aiming at a still higher standard of popular

education, and in order to attain it employs a superintendent who, in the language of the law defining his duties, "shall devote himself to the study of the school system, and of the condition of the schools, and shall keep himself acquainted with the progress of instruction and discipline in other places, in order to suggest appropriate means for the advancement of the public schools in this city."

Under these heavy disbursements for education, the city has made rapid progress in wealth, commerce, and population,—has taken the lead in manufactures, railways, the India trade, and the improvement of naval architecture.* Its progress will appear in the following table based upon official documents: —

	1840.	1850.
Population of Boston, - - -	83,979	138,788
Population of Boston and suburbs, -	158,546	269,874
Assessors' valuation of Boston,	$94,581,600	$210,000,000
Tonnage of Boston per returns of 1842 and 1851, - - - -	193,502	343,308

While the capital of the State has been active in the advancement of letters, the State government has not been unmindful of its duties under the Constitution and laws. Aid has been given by liberal grants to the university and colleges; three normal schools for the education of teachers have been established at the public expense. A Board of Education has been created, composed of the principal officers of State, with a working secretary and two agents, who traverse the State and draw attention, by addresses and conference with teachers, to school architecture, the best modes of teaching, and the importance of a higher standard of education.

Institutes or meetings of teachers and friends of education, are held in various parts of the State, under the sanction of the Board of Education, and a corps of professors employed to address them on the best mode of imparting knowledge, and to lecture on grammar, elocution, arithmetic, music, and drawing. Professors Guyot and Agassiz are now engaged in that duty. Four or five days are devoted to each of these institutes, and so popular and useful are these meetings, that the cities and villages where they are held, provide lodgings for the teachers at their own expense, and are clamorous for their turns.

Under the stimulus thus given to education, we are not sur-

* The Boston clipper, "Sovereign of the Sea," a ship of 2200 tons, with a crew of 35 men, is reported in the New York Journal of May last, to have made her passage from the Sandwich Islands, around Cape Horn, to New York, in 80 days; and in one day to have run 430 miles, or 18 miles per hour. Another clipper, of 4000 tons, to *carry four masts*, was in May last on the stocks at Boston.

prised to learn, from the report of the Board, that in this small State, with a harsh climate and sterile soil, with but 7,600 square miles of surface, and 1,000,000 of people, there were, in 1851, 3,987 schools, or one for 2 square miles of surface, and an unnual expenditure on schools, including buildings, not far from $1,500,000, or to learn the facts condensed in the following table : —

RETURNS OF MASSACHUSETTS.

	1837.	1851.
Number of children in the State from 4 to 16,	184,896	
Number of children in the State from 5 to 15,		196,536
Number of children in public free schools in summer,		179,497
Number of same in winter of all ages,		199,429
Average attendance in winter,		152,564
Number of teachers,	5,961	8,694
Average length of school term,	6 mo. 25 days	7 mo. 14 days.
Wages of male teachers per month,	$25.44	$36.29
Wages of female teachers per month,	$11.38	$15.25
Average tax per child of educational age, assessed principally on property,	$2.59	$4.71
Amount raised for wages, fuel and books, exclusive of repairs and new structures,	$387,184	$915,389
Population of State per census of 1840 and 1850,	737,699	992,499
Assessors' valuation of taxable property in the State for returns of 1840 and 1850,	$299,878,329	$597,936,995
Whole amount expended in public and private schools in Massachusetts —exclusive of buildings, in 1851,		$1,353,700.63
Amount of public school fund,		$1,000,000

It is easy to draw the inference from this table, that the standard of education has been raised, the quality of teachers and teaching improved, while the State has continued to increase to a remarkable extent in population, and still more rapidly in wealth.

During the period in question, this State, which is devoted in a great measure to manufactures, has absorbed between one and two hundred thousand illiterate emigrants from Ireland.

In the schools of Massachusetts, no instruction is given in the tenets of any religious denomination. The schools usually are opened with reading a chapter of the Bible, and a brief prayer, or address, from the master; but the duty of the master and the committee to inculcate morals is by no means forgotten. It is

prescribed by the fundamental laws, and the attention paid to it may be inferred from the following passages, which we cite from the report of a school committee to their constituents, in the little town of Winchendon, in Worcester county.

"The object of education is not merely to teach the pupil to read, to learn the news of the day, to write, to cipher, to keep his accounts, but to receive that thorough mental discipline which may prepare him for any sphere in which he may be called to move; that development of the mind which will elevate and ennoble his aspirations; that cultivation of the faculties which will awaken a quenchless thirst for knowledge; that influence on the mental powers which will incline them to the truth, as delicately as the needle seeks the pole. Its object is to make strong minds, courageous hearts, prompt, active, and energetic men."

"In relation to obedience, diligence, stillness, decorum, manliness of manners, respect to superiors, the pupil should be disciplined most thoroughly."

The committee conclude with this earnest appeal, as applicable to England as to America —

"Shall not we, the moral guardians, the foster-fathers of the children of the ignorant and dependent, see that our wards, whom Heaven has put into our hands, are provided for?"

The report of the town of Cambridge in Massachusetts takes the ground that,—

"Our wealth is in the mines of the intellect that lie hidden in the popular body, and not in gold or silver coin." "To make this wealth available, we must labor not only to extend some education to all, but to put the best education within the reach of those who can turn it to the best account." "No wastefulness is so mischievous as this, to leave the high faculties to run to waste."

"Our duty is 'to awake a just conception of what is exalted in feeling and conduct, and an inextinguishable love of moral purity and intellectual culture.' The great objects of school education are to give children such habits, tastes, and ideas, as will strengthen them against the temptations to which they are exposed, and form their characters for further progress."

When such sentiments and views guide the managers of the schools, may not the Catechism be safely left to the religious instructor?

One more extract must suffice. A Boston committee gives us some light on the effect of schools on the population of the city, one half of which now consists of emigrants from Ireland and their children. "By these schools much has been done to convert the stagnant pools of ignorance and vice into pure and healthful fountains of knowledge, whose life-giving power pervades and penetrates all portions of society."

A noble library, just founded in Boston by Mr. Bates, of London, of the House of Baring Brothers, and a native of Massa*chusetts, will* aid and extend the influence of the schools.

The great State of New York, the most populous in the Union, has since 1825, when the Erie Canal was built, paid marked attention to education.

De Witt Clinton gave an impulse to both. New York has gradually been accumulating large funds for the advancement of letters, and annually increasing its appropriations for that object. Under the auspices of the State, several colleges and universities have been founded, eleven of which report to the State in 1851, that 1801 students are in attendance. One hundred and sixty academies also report their pupils as 15,947, their permanent endowments at $1,694,660. They give the salaries of their teachers as $247,341, and their libraries as containing 72,568 volumes.

The superintendent of the common free schools reports the entire number of school districts as 11,297, and the entire expenditure for 1849, on the free schools of the State, as $1,766,668. We have condensed from several reports the following summary.

Population of the State in 1850, - - -	3,097,394
ditto 1840, - - -	2,428,941
Number of children between the ages of five and sixteen years in the State, 1850, - - - -	735,188
Number of children of all ages taught during the year,	794,500
Whole amount of money expended in common schools, including buildings, salaries, fuel, and books in 1849,	$1,766,668
Amount paid for buildings, fuel, &c., included in sum above, - - - - - -	$398,097
Amount contributed by State from general tax and income of lands, - - - - - -	$906,822
Income of school funds, 1849, - - -	$302,524
Number of volumes in district school libraries, -	1,449,950
Average length of school term, 1849, eight months.	
Whole amount received and expended in common schools in 1825, but - - - - -	$265,720

The State of New York, as will appear from the above, is fast increasing its outlay on schools, and has liberally provided a library for each district. The State has also established normal schools, which are tending to improve the teachers, and raise the standard of qualification for office throughout the State.

Teachers' institutes have been authorized, and will soon be commenced. A school journal has also been established, which serves as the official channel of communication between the superintendent and the officers of the district, and contributes to the improvement of the system of public instruction. The library and journal, as appendages of the common school, are apparently peculiar to New York.

With respect to new sites and structures for school-houses, the superintendent reports that an increased regard to the com-

fort, convenience, and health, both of pupils and teachers, and to refined taste, has been manifested. He recommends enlarged sites for school-houses, the introduction of tasteful shrubbery, useful and ornamental plants, and, while providing for wholesome exercise, would make some provision for developing those higher faculties of our nature, which can appreciate the beautiful, tasteful and ornamental.

The city of New York, the commercial centre of the New World, is making progress in her schools. A few years since they were inferior to those of New England; but of late years its most able and influential citizens have taken them in charge, and rapid improvement has been made. Normal schools have been established, evening schools have begun to instruct the adult emigrants, who land there from Ireland and Germany without the rudiments of knowledge, and a free academy has been opened to teach the higher branches and the ancient languages to the most distinguished graduates of the grammar schools. The following table gives the statistics of the schools. We would remark, however, that some deduction must be made from the aggregate number of scholars on the registers of the city and State of New York, as those who remove from district to district during the year are sometimes twice entered on the register.

Whole number of children in the city between five and fifteen years of age, January, 1850,	90,145
Whole number entered on register in schools during the year 1849 of all ages,	102,974
Number in free academy,	382
Number in evening schools,	3,450
Number in private, church, and other schools,	18,250
Amount paid for teachers' salaries, 1850,	$274,790
New buildings,	$32,000
Repairs,	$18,660
Sites,	$41,680
Cost of evening schools,	$16,621
Cost of free academy,	$16,270
Entire cost of free schools,	$400,629
Population of city proper, 1850,	515,347
ditto 1840,	312,710

In the schools of the city and State of New York, the exercises are usually begun by reading a passage from the Bible; but no favor is shown to any religious denomination. The degree of moral culture afforded by these schools — their influence over the community, and the favor with which they are regarded, may be inferred from the extract we subjoin from the Annual Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools to the Legislature for 1850, page 19.

"The idea of universal education is the grand central idea of the age. *Upon this* broad and comprehensive basis all the experience of

the past, all the crowding phenomena of the present, and all our hopes and aspirations for the future, must rest. Our forefathers have transmitted to us a noble inheritance of national, intellectual, moral, and religious freedom. They have confided our destiny as a people to our own hands. Upon our individual and combined intelligence, virtue, and patriotism rests the solution of the great problem of self-government. We should be untrue to ourselves, untrue to the memory of our statesmen and patriots, untrue to the cause of liberty, of civilization and humanity, if we neglected the assiduous cultivation of those means by which alone we can secure the realization of the hopes we have excited. Those means are the universal education of our future citizens without discrimination or distinction. Wherever in our midst a human being exists with capacities and faculties to be developed, improved, cultivated, and directed, the avenues of knowledge should be freely opened, and every facility afforded to their unrestricted entrance. Ignorance should no more be countenanced than vice and crime. The one leads almost inevitably to the other. Banish ignorance, and in its stead introduce intelligence, science, knowledge, and increasing wisdom and enlightenment, and you remove in most cases all those incentives to idleness, vice, and crime, which produce such frightful harvests of retribution, misery, and wretchedness. Educate every child 'to the top of his faculties,' and you not only secure the community against the depredations of the ignorant and the criminal, but you bestow upon it instead, productive artisans, good citizens, upright jurors and magistrates, enlightened statesmen, scientific discoverers and inventors, and the dispensers of a pervading influence in favor of honesty, virtue, and true goodness. Educate every child physically, morally, and intellectually, from the age of four to twenty-one, and many of your prisons, penitentiaries and almshouses will be converted into schools of industry and temples of science; and the amount now contributed for their maintenance and support will be diverted into far more profitable channels. Educate every child, not superficially, not partially, but thoroughly; develop equally and healthfully every faculty of his nature, every capability of his being, and you infuse a new and invigorating element into the very lifeblood of civilization, an element which will diffuse itself throughout every vein and artery of the social and political system, purifying, strengthening, and regenerating all its impulses, elevating its aspirations, and clothing it with a power equal to every demand upon its vast energies and resources.

"These are some of the results which must follow in the train of a wisely matured and judiciously organized system of universal education. They are not imaginary, but sober deductions from well authenticated facts, deliberate conclusions, and sanctioned by the concurrent testimony of experienced educators and eminent statesmen and philanthropists. If names are needed to enforce the lesson they teach, those of Washington, and Franklin, and Hamilton, and Jefferson, and Clinton, with a long array of patriots and statesmen, may be cited. If facts are required to illustrate the connection between ignorance and crime, let the officer's return of convictions in the several courts of the State for the last ten years be examined, and the instructive lessons be heeded. Out of nearly 28,000 persons convicted of crime, but 128 had enjoyed the benefits of a good common school education."

The influence of education in New York is still further illustrated in a report of the Board of Education of the city of New York on the system of popular education, May 28, 1851. The report appears to have been in answer to a message of the mayor on the increase of expense in the police, almshouse, and school departments, which may be ascribed doubtless to the great influx of foreign emigrants. The report is a most able defence of a system which has been found in New York to give increased elevation to morals, additional value to property, and higher respectability and safety to the city.

"The mayor has associated the department of common schools with those of the almshouse and police. There are near and interesting relations existing between these several departments. So intimate indeed are these relations, and so immediate and strong are the reciprocal influences springing out of them, that the more you cherish and sustain the one, the more you relieve the other, and the more liberal and diffusive your system of education, and the more you contribute for its improvement and extension, the less you will have to pay for the maintenance of the other two departments."

"The more you subject all to the elevating, refining, and conservative influences of a wholesome, moral, intellectual, and industrial training, the more you relieve your almshouses and police. Extend education, and you diminish pauperism and crime. Increase the number of schools, and you diminish in more than a corresponding degree the number of those who are otherwise to become the recipients of your charity, or the subjects of your penal code. Between these alternatives you must decide. Can the choice in a civilized and Christian community be either difficult or doubtful, I will not say to the philanthropists merely, but even to the taxpayers?"

The city of New York continues to increase its appropriations for schools; and its progress in the arts, commerce, wealth, and population attests their value.

The splendid library recently founded with a bequest of half a million of dollars by Astor, originally a poor German emigrant, will find many readers in New York, and add much to the attraction of the city.

On the southwest, New York borders on Pennsylvania, a rich, central, agricultural State, early settled by the Swedes, Germans, and English Quakers. In 1682 William Penn formed the first constitution of the colony, and incorporated this clause into his frame of government. "Wisdom and virtue are qualities which, because they descend not with worldly inheritances, must be carefully propagated by a virtuous education of youth." Although the value of education was thus recognized by the first lawgiver of the colony, his successors appear to have forgotten the policy enjoined by their ancestors, and paid little regard to it until the year 1831, when the system of popular instruction was established in the State.

At the outset, great difficulties were encountered in the

apathy of the German population, and the want of competent teachers. These were increased by the pecuniary embarrassments in which the State was involved by the failure of its banks, and the management of the public works: but gradually these obstacles have been surmounted. The State has recovered from its depression, resumed the payment of the interest, and, since 1844, annually appropriates $200,000 in aid of the public schools. The value of normal schools has also been recognized, and several are now established.

The State has been divided into districts, and each is required to assess taxes sufficient, with its proportion of the public fund, to provide instruction for three or four months yearly. We subjoin a condensed table of the population, schools, and school expenses of the State:—

Population of the State, 1850, - - - -	2,311,786
ditto 1840, - - - -	1,724,033
Number of children registered in schools in 1851, -	424,344
ditto ditto 1835, -	32,544
Average length of short term, 1835, - - -	3 mo. 12 d.
ditto 1851, - - -	5 mo. 1 day
Average salaries of male teachers per month, - -	$17.20
ditto female, ditto, - - -	$ 10.15
Number of schools in 1851, - - - -	8,510
ditto still required, - - -	674
Entire expense of schools, - - - -	$926,447.65
Amount in above items for structures, - - -	$253,741.06

In the brief period of sixteen years the pupils have increased thirteen fold. The term of instruction has been extended nearly fifty per cent., and provision made to qualify a superior class of teachers in normal schools.

Pennsylvania has not only secured its schools, but has ascertained, by its experience, that the most efficacious plan to educate a community is to train the teachers, enabling them to acquire knowledge, and the most improved modes of imparting what they acquire. The whole State is alive to the importance of institutions affording ample means for teachers to learn their duties before attempting to perform them; and those who have questioned the value of such institutions are now their most ardent friends.

The superintendent of the schools, after dilating on the importance of having good teachers, and giving testimony to the value and popularity of the normal schools, submits to the State a plan for an agricultural college, for the gratuitous instruction of the most promising youth, and estimates the annual cost at $45,300.

Philadelphia, the commercial capital of the State, and the second city in the Union, anticipated the action of the State, but did not commence its common school system until 1818, or open *its schools to* the whole community until 1836. In the

last fifteen years, however, it has laid the foundations deep and wide, and is now making progress in its free schools. No improvement escapes its notice. The form, size, and classification of its schools are subjects of study. The most liberal provision is made for preparing teachers in normal institutions.

Females are very generally employed in the primary and grammar schools, with favorable results. This furnishes a most appropriate occupation for women, besides reducing the cost of tution. A high school has been formed to receive the *elite* pupils of the grammar schools, and the qualifications for admissions have been gradually raised, and the studies advanced, until a collegiate education is now given at the public expense, and degrees of Bachelors and Masters of Arts are conferred on the graduates.

In this high school are employed ten professors and two assistants. Five hundred and five students are on the register. The course is four years, and instruction is given in the classics, French, Spanish and the higher mathematics, logic, elocution, and philosophy in all its branches; chemistry, navigation and phonetics; and all who enter are obliged to pass a severe examination in reading, writing, grammar, arithmetic, geography, algebra, and geometry. The principal reporters of Congress are phonographic reporters from this institution. We subjoin, in tabular form, a brief view of the state of education in Philadelphia: —

	1840.	1850.
Population of Philadelphia, - -	228,691	408,766
Number of schoolhouses, - - -	16	60
ditto teachers, - - -	190	928
ditto scholars, - - -	19,000	48,000
Expenditures for schools, - - -	$190,000	$336,000

The rapid growth of the State and its metropolis, in manufactures, commerce, buildings, population and the useful arts, shows that education has not checked their career; while the popular feeling which has been awakened in its behalf where apathy formerly prevailed, attests its beneficial influence.

We have thus cited three of the leading States, and three of the principal cities of the Union, to illustrate what progress the United States have made, and are still making, in education. But let it not be supposed that the subject is disregarded in other sections of the Union; although in some of the Southern States, where the population is sparse and slavery exists, less zeal is evinced. Even there the influence of the leading States is widely felt, and a spirit of inquiry and rivalry is awakened.

In Richmond and New Orleans measures are in progress to improve their system of free schools. In most of the Western and Southwestern States, large reservations of land have been made by Congress for the purpose of education, which will soon

be, or already are, productive. The remote city of St. Louis, in the border State of Missouri, appropriates yearly $100,000 to the public schools, — a sum greater in proportion than the disbursement of New York; and even in Texas, where a few years since the bowie-knife and revolver were used to settle all difficult questions, the Journal of Commerce apprises us that schools exist in every county, and nearly 200 churches are in progress. So many States are now embarked in education, and such is the current in its favor, that none can resist the force of public opinion. The school rises in the forest, and is but the precursor of the spire and belfry of the village church. Religion, if it may not guide, is a close attendant upon the schools of America.

On the western frontier of the Union, on the bank of the Mississippi, lies the frontier State of Iowa, one of the youngest members of the confederacy. The adventurous settlers have but just built their cabins and marked out their shire towns and villages, but they have carried with them the love for learning; and on those prairies where the Indian but yesterday figured in the war-dance, or chased the buffalo, the philosopher now plans a system of moral and intellectual culture.

A superintendent of schools has already been appointed, and education provided for by an organic law. The central government here, with wise liberality, reserved for education a million and a half acres of land, valued at two to three millions of dollars. A portion is already productive. Public provision has been made for the instruction of the deaf and dumb. A treatise by Mr. Barnard on school architecture is circulated at the public expense. Three colleges have been founded. Two normal schools have been instituted; district schools have been commenced; the old theory that the parent and schoolmaster were responsible for the education of the child has been exploded, and the *State* is held responsible for the education of its youth.

Such are the state and prospects of education on the very verge of the wilderness, more than 1200 miles from tide water, in a State which numbered but 43,000 people in 1840, and but 192,000 souls by the late census.

After this glance at particular States and cities, the reader will not be surprised at the results which we condense from Mitchell into the following summary. The returns embrace States containing more than two-thirds of the inhabitants of the Union. The others have not yet published their returns:

Number of children in States making returns of educational age, - - - - - -	3,723,756
Number of children attending public schools in same,	2,967,741
Annual expenditure on public schools ditto, -	$7,086,693
Number of students in colleges, law, and medical schools, - - - - - - -	18,280

Number of volumes in public libraries of the United States,	3,954,375
Number of volumes in college libraries,	846,455
Amount of public school funds beside land,	$17,957,652
Population of the United States, 1850,	23,256,972
Estimated population, December, 1852,	26,000,000

The zeal for education in the United States has passed their borders, already animates Upper Canada, and is gradually penetrating the provinces of Lower Canada and Nova Scotia. Normal schools have been for some time in progress in Upper Canada, and will soon find countenance in the other provinces. The comparative progress of these colonies may be inferred from the annexed table:

Canada, West, 1849,	population,		803,566
" " "	children in public schools,		151,891
" " "	paid for salaries,		$330,720
" East, "	population,		768,344
" " "	children in public schools,		73,551
" " "	public grant,		$50,772
Nova Scotia, "	population,		300,000
" " "	children in public schools,		30,631
" " "	annual expense for same,		$136,286

While the upper province of Canada readily adopts the school which has borrowed from the improved system of Ireland, the French inhabitants of the lower province cling more tenaciously to their ancient usages and habits. Railways, however, are fast invading the provinces, and will soon bring them in contact with their more mercurial neighbors, and obliterate their prejudices.

Our glance at education in the Transatlantic States leads us to some important results. We glean from it, not only the facts that more than 3,000,000 of pupils attend the public free schools and that large funds are accumulating for the purposes of education, but we deduce more interesting conclusions. It is obvious that the system of public instruction has taken firm hold of the public mind, and is eminently popular and progressive; that it is pervading the entire country, and assuming a higher tone and character.

There is a determination in America to unite the thinking head with the working hand, and to elicit all the talent of the country. The system of public schools drew Daniel Webster from obscurity to guide and enlighten his country; and more Websters are required. The respect for education displays itself in the embellishment of the grounds of the country schools. In place of the low and comfortless school-room, brick structures are now reared in the large towns, seventy feet in length by *sixty* in width, and four stories high, well ventilated, and warmed by furnaces. The books are improved, and libraries provided. The local committees give place to able superin-

tendents and boards of control. Music is added to the studies, — schools of design are established, — normal schools to prepare teachers, are provided. Institutions are started to educate the deaf, dumb, blind, and idiotic: all these are at the public charge. Academies and colleges follow, and schools for arts, law, medicine, and divinity succeed; and to stimulate the whole, teachers' institutes, school journals, and agents are employed by the State to disseminate information, and fan the public enthusiasm. Appeals are constantly made to the public to suffer no waste of talent or intellect; to give the luxury of learning to the class doomed to toil, and to counteract the bad influences of the home of the illiterate emigrant by the attractions of the school.

Under these incentives the taxes for schools are cheerfully paid, and education progresses. What are its effects? Do we not see them in the quickened action of the American mind, in its more rapid adaptation of means to ends; in the application of steam and the great water power of the country, as a substitute for labor; in teaching it to move the spindles, the loom, the saw, drill, stone-cutter, and the planing, polishing, and sewing machines; in replacing the living man and woman by steam carpet looms and artificial reapers; in teaching the locomotive and car to surmount steep acclivities, and wind round sharp curves at trifling expense; in designing new models and new modes of constructing, rigging, and steering ships upon the sea, diminishing the crews while doubling the speed and size of the vessel; inventing new processes for spinning and bleaching; new furnaces for the steam engine, and new presses for the printer?

A few years since, the question was asked by a distinguished divine, "Who reads an American work?" The question now is, "Who does not read an American book, journal, or newspaper?" The trained soldier can effect more than the raw recruit, and the skilled artisan more than the rude plough boy. Disciplined America can entrust the guidance of her mechanism and the teaching of her children to the trained female, and devote the strength and talent of the male to agriculture, navigation, construction, and invention. Temperance seems to follow in the train of education. Thirty years since spirits were used to excess in many of the States. A marked change has occurred as education has advanced, and now in some States the sale of spirits is almost discontinued. The saving thus effected, more than counterbalances the whole cost of education.

The effect of education on morals is well illustrated by the progress of Massachusetts in one branch of manufactures, that of boots and shoes. While in some countries the manufacturer dares not entrust the materials to the workmen at their houses, in this State the artisans are scattered in their rural homes, the *materials sent to* them with entire confidence, and returned

weekly ready for the market. Among other great branches of industry, this now amounts annually, in this little State, to £6,000,000 sterling.

In this same State, in the face of a large immigration of laborers from Ireland, and liberal outlay for their shelter, pauperism has been virtually receding. We learn from Hunt's Merchant's Magazine for June, 1851, that in the twelve years preceding, in that State, population had increased 40 per cent., wealth 120 per cent., and the cost of pauperism but 38 per cent., although 2,880 foreigners were aided in 1837, and 12,334 received assistance in 1850. "Thus, in twelve years," the writer remarks, "the cost of maintaining the poor, distributed *per capita* upon the population, has fallen from 44 cents per head to 43, and the percentage on property has been actually reduced one-third. Native pauperism is comparatively diminished, and the principal draft on the charity of Massachusetts is the temporary aid given to the foreign emigrant.

We learn by the census returns lately published, that in 1850 the whole number of churches and meeting-houses in the United States was 36,011, containing 13,849,896 seats, or room for three-fifths of the existing population. In this growing country nearly one-fifth of the inhabitants are under the age of six; and if we deduct those who from sickness, extreme youth, old age or domestic duties are unable to worship together, this must be a very liberal provision. By the same returns we find the whole number of foreigners in the country was 2,210,828, or less than one-tenth the entire population; and while the annual expense for paupers was but £600,000, the permanent foreign paupers were 13,437, and the native 36,947 only. With respect to crime, the ratio is still more striking. Of 27,000 crimes in the United States during 1850, no less than 14,000 were committed by foreigners. In a country whose natives are educated, more than half the crimes are traced to illiterate foreigners, forming less than one-tenth of the whole population.

It seems, then, to be established in America, that general education increases the efficiency of a nation, promotes temperance, aids religion, and checks pauperism; while all concede that it diminishes crime. Why should its effects be different in England, and why should we not find, in education, a cheap and most admirable substitute for prisons and penal colonies? If in America holders of property sustain education, because they insure their own safety, and the security of their fortunes, by the instruction of the masses, why should not the same results attend education in England?

Again, if America with all accessions from natural growth and immigration, cannot afford to lose the mines of intellect *hidden* in the popular masses; if she is not rich enough in *intellect* to suffer their faculties to run to waste, can England,

comparatively stationary in growth and population, afford such loss?

The future contests of nations will not be confined to war-like encounters. They will be in the field of science and arts, and that nation will attain to the highest distinction which shall excel in the arts of peace. If other nations are cultivating and developing the human intellect, let not England be distanced in the course. She can appreciate the effective force of the skilled artisan, the disciplined soldier, and trained athlete. Will she not appreciate the value of disciplined mind, of educated labor? Do not her position, climate, and wealth, enable her to wield them with the most advantage. If the humble citizen of a village in America considers himself the foster father of the children of the poor, the natural guardian of those Heaven has intrusted to him, and under moral obligations to educate his wards, will the philanthropists of England exhibit less benevolence? And is there any country in which the natural powers of the mind offer a more favorable field for cultivation—in which education is likely to yield a more plentiful harvest—than England? We have so lately given a full consideration to the subject of popular education in this country, that we need not here dwell upon its importance: we will only add our conviction, that whenever the conflicting religious views which now impede its extension, shall have been reconciled, no difficulties of a merely economical character will prove insuperable.

AMERICAN SYSTEM OF EDUCATION. A HAND-BOOK OF ANGLO-SAXON ROOT-WORDS.

We warn our friends against buying this book. We have no fear that they will ever use it. No intelligent man could fail to detect the absurdity of its plan, and its thousand faults of detail. It purports to be a part of an American System of Education, and to be prepared by a Literary Association. But we can discern only one hand throughout, and although there are blunders enough for twenty, and some inconsistencies, we doubt whether more have been employed on it. The pretentious title-page is somewhat disgusting. It seems quite modest, however, after reading a letter and a dialogue prefixed to the book, which are so conceited as to move at once our mirth and indignation. The dialogue professes to give an account of an interview between Mr. B., "a practical teacher," and a "Member of the Literary Association," and Mr. B. is made to play the part of a monstrous ignoramus, in order that the Member may instruct him in a few trite facts about the English language, *and force him to* admire the plan of the Hand-Book. Of course

the teacher is overwhelmed with the science of the Member. "Enough, enough, sir!" he exclaims. "You have convinced me that I know little or nothing of my own language. The Hand-Book I shall study." "Sir," rejoins the Member with exquisite complacency, "we have a noble language. Let us understand and teach it to the people." It is gratifying after this to read the letter from Dr. Lionel Wisdom, in which the whole Literary Association are talked to in the same patronizing and majestical tone which the Member had employed towards the teacher. This Solomon, who is probably the same person as the Member and the author, (if indeed he be not the whole Literary Association,) seems to wish to give us the impression that he had never seen the Hand-Book, to which he was really writing a preface.

A list of the Anglo-Saxon words preserved in our language, though it would be useless as a school-book, however carefully made, would certainly possess some curiosity for the advanced scholar. It should be accompanied by a corresponding list of the words we have adopted from the French and the Latin. And we should have reason to thank any competent person who would take the pains to compile such a document. But for children of any age, a work of this sort would have no conceivable value. The mere fact that such and such words are Anglo-Saxon is of no consequence to them. The author of the present volume had read in the Edinburgh Review, that the most useful and the most expressive words in English are Anglo-Saxon. If he could find a set of children who did not know these words, it would certainly be kind of him to teach them these precious vocables. And this he really seems to have proposed to himself. It does not occur to the author, that long before a child has arrived at the age of eight, (when, according to Dr. Wisdom, he needs such a book,) he is as familiar with the greater part of these terms as he possibly can be. The Literary Association appear to think that a child gets quite through its infancy without acquiring the meaning of such terms as house, mother, arm, mouth, day, sun, and a thousand others. At the age of eight he is to be instructed in them — and from a book! The Association will, perhaps, make a subtle distinction. Children know *what objects* these words denote, but they do not know "*the meaning*" of the terms. This is the notion that deludes the author of the Hand-Book. No one knows the meaning of a thing who cannot give a definition of it. It is not enough that the sign should instantly suggest the thing signified. A child must be able to find *two* expressions for one thing, before he can be said to know what he is talking about, and then he is presumed to understand what he means, whether he comprehends *his* definition or not. Children under eight have up to *his time* been ignorant whether they have ears or not, but

henceforth, those who have arrived at that age may study our Hand-Book, and learn that an ear is "a shoot — the organ of hearing," which clears the matter up very satisfactorily.

But the author of this volume evidently had no definite idea of what he wished to do — except to make a book. Neither of the offensive prefaces contains any precise statement of the object intended to be accomplished, although a great deal is said about the best way of accomplishing something. What is actually done amounts to this. A thousand familiar words are selected, and grouped under certain heads. The author has a high opinion of the classification. We have not. But let that pass. An attempt is then made to give both the primitive meaning of these words and their present acceptation. The first part of the undertaking is a manifest impossibility; the second is quite superfluous, because the child has a dictionary and wants *no* dictionary. The *actual* meaning of the most important names of objects, qualities, and actions, may be safely considered the original one. But if it is not, lexicographers are not in a condition to throw much light on the matter. It is the fashion of some impertinent etymologists to explain one primitive word by another, the second by a third, and the third again by the first, — an absurd procedure which destroys our whole stock of roots. We do not know where the author of this book found such gems as these; — "sister, set;" "fish, lively;" "tree, tall;" "in, a cave;" but we do know that speculations of this sort, unsatisfactory to scholars, are the last things to be taught to children as positive facts. Some of the so-called primitive meanings given in this book, are palpably and ridiculously false; a few are probably true; of the greater part we are unable to decide — and children do not need any of them.

Since, then, those for whom this book is intended know as much about the words it professes to explain as they can learn, and almost as much as can be known, what is the use of bringing these thousand words together? Why, perhaps to teach young children that they are Anglo-Saxon — Anglo-Saxon *Root*-words; — a valuable fact, to be sure! This being all that the book could accomplish on the most favorable supposition — and probably, after all, the secret object of the author — it remains only to inquire whether the words selected *are* Anglo-Saxon, and whether they are Root-words. Hastily passing through the book, we picked out the following specimens of pure Saxon: — *acid, armor, bishop, castle, court, church, creed, canon, elephant, form, gong, kitchen, liquor, mix, monk, mount, fear, priest, provost, prove, part, peace, prime, pen, post, radish, second, tower.* We will add a few choice samples of Roots: *maker, shoe-maker, ploughing, bedroom, outhouse, washstand, husband, housemaid, shepherd, nostril,* silversmith, fishmonger, hand-

barrow, *Sunday*, *whortleberry*, *seed-time*, *high-priest*, *door-post*, *ship-wreck*, *washerwoman*, *undershot-wheel*, *overshot-wheel*. There are over one hundred and fifty such primitives in this collection.

Before entering on the study of "Anglo-Saxon Root-words," the learner (a child of eight years,) is prepared for the task by thirty-five "instructions" above the "spoken word" and the "written word," pictures, symbols, the sources of English words, articulation, and the like. These instructions, even if they were happily expressed, would be of very little use to young learners, and would serve in most cases only to make easy things hard. But as they stand in this book, they are highly objectionable. They often contain false statements, and the language is generally incorrect, silly, vague, or even quite unintelligible. We doubt whether anything would be learned from them but mistakes, affectation, and bad grammar. To justify so sweeping an assertion, we will quote a few passages, which are only a fair specimen of the whole. "*A word is that which passes from the lips.*" (P. 13.) (The italics are not ours.) "Speech is a rich gift, and is shared alone by man. It is the power to think and feel aloud. It gives us the spoken word." Ib. "The spoken word comes to the ear. Without hearing, it comes in vain. There is no sound. We could make none ourselves: we could not hear what others make." (P. 14.) "*Speech is the power of making known what we wish in sounds.* It breaks up the silence of the heart. We think and feel aloud." Ib. "The eye could never give us a written word, if left to itself. It needs the help of touch." (P. 16.) "*A word is simple voice;* as a. o. It is formed by opening the mouth." "*A command is a jointed sound.* It is formed by joining parts of the mouth together." (P. 19.) "The name *Anglo-Saxon*, is taken from the names of two German tribes, *Anglos* and *Saxons*, who settled in England A. D. 450. Their language became the speech of England in A. D. 836." "*Enunciation is the way in which we give out the sounds of letters.*" (P. 25.) Equally accurate is the definition on page 145. "*Words are the sounds that pass from the lips.* They are formed on the organ of speech." "If we notice the voice as we sound the letters of the alphabet, we will see that it goes forth in different ways." (P. 25.) "Instead of writing each word by a mark, for then we would have to write and know eighty thousand marks." (P. 18.) And so on page 147: "If we take now the thousand words we have learned and look at them in their beginnings, we will see clearly what they mean. We will find *clasp*, *fingers*, grope and feel beginning with the hands."

We will now make a few selections from the thousand Root-words, for the purpose of giving the reader an idea of the definitions which are affixed to them.

Mind, possessing.
Thought, that is drawn out.
Love, to lean forward.
Nun, not up, or mature.
Wheat, next to rice, the most useful grain.
Pear, the well known point of the pyrus.

We add a few more, which exhibit, better than those given above, the exact erudition of the compiler. The brackets are ours.

Woman, [*wif-man*] source of man.
Creed, [*credo*] that on which we rest.
Chestnut, [*chastaigne, Castanea*] castle nut.
Priest, [*presbyter, elder*] one who stands before others.
Garlic, [*spear leek*] a dart.
Radish, [*radix*] ruddy.
Gong, [*Chinese*] going? [apparently compounded with old English gong, a privy.]
Hen, a cock.
Whither, at what place.

Each word is accompanied with a question which the teacher is to ask and the learner to answer. This process is intended to teach the usage of the word. The questions are in general perfectly insipid and sufficiently harmless. The writer, however, sometimes contrives to make them convey a false impression, or at any rate set an example of bad English.

"Laughter, audible mirth. Can you make laughter?"
"Fat, plump or fleshy. Are infants fat?"
"Nice, tender; delicate or fine. Are chairs nice?"
"Heathen, a dweller on the heath. Shall the heathen be converted?"
"Mistletoe. —— Did the Saxons venerate the mistletoe?"
"Boor. —— Were the Saxons boors?"
"Saturday. —— Was Saturn worshipped on Saturday?"

The Literary Association insist a great deal on their classification, and it would be unjust not to furnish the reader with some specimens of their skill in this way.

ONE HUNDRED AND FOURTH STUDY.

QUALITIES OF THE MANUFACTURER AND MANUFACTURING.

MANY, numerous.
Are there *many* manufacturers?
SOME, taken together; a certain quantity.
Are *some* manufactures useful?
RAW; rough; not altered by man.
Is *raw* silk made into ribbons?
ALL, the whole; the whole number.
Are *all* manufactures used by men?

ONE HUNDRED AND SIXTH STUDY.
QUALITIES OF A SAILOR AND SAILOR'S LIFE.

MERRY, brisk; gay and noisy.
Are sailors merry?

ONE HUNDRED AND SEVENTH STUDY.
QUALITIES OF THE LEARNED PROFESSIONS.

High, lifted up; raised above us.
Is the gospel ministry a *high* calling?
Wordy, full of words.
Are some wise men *wordy?*
Blank, white, or void; void or empty.
Is *blank* paper needed?

We commend two thirds of this last study to the special consideration of the Literary Association.

The subject of the 156th Study is "Events of God." We do not know what the phrase means, but here are the "events." EARTH, HEAVEN, SUN, MOON, STAR, WORLD, MAN, FALL, GOSPEL, DAYSMAN, PEACE.

But we are quite sick of this contemptible performance, and will add only a word more. We think we have shown what we asserted at the beginning, that the plan is foolish, and the execution in every respect bad. There is indeed hardly a page in the book that does not swarm with mistakes. The ignorance of the compilers is only equalled by their effrontery. They have put forth two other volumes, in which they pretend to treat of derivative words and "the engrafted parts of our language." But it fully appears from what has been said, also, that they do not know a derivative word from a root, while they call the simplest Latin words, Anglo-Saxon. And what is worse, it appears that they cannot write English with perspicuity, simplicity or correctness. We have taken no notice of some extraordinary misconceptions about the history and structure of our language, which, if they are developed in the other Hand-Books, must make them at least as bad as the present. It is really inconceivable that such books should obtain any circulation, but Dr. Wisdom is "happy to learn," what we are ashamed of, that "the two Hand-Books already published find an open and hopeful field." The country is flooded with shallow and ignorant books on language and grammar. It is notorious that they are smuggled into use by scheming agents, who undertake the business as a mercantile speculation, and make it as profitable as the selling of patent medicines. Both kinds of quackery have been readily swallowed by our people. We have nothing to do with medical charlatanry. Let every man answer to own conscience for the bitters he takes himself, and the pills he gives his children. *But* teachers and school committees are responsible for *books that* are put into the hands of the young, and easi-

ness and indifference about the matter is a serious dereliction of duty. We know that it is vain to propose any remedy for the abuses that exist. But we believe that our State will never be delivered from the nuisance of bad school-books, until the Board of Education are vested with a censorial power.

Resident Editors' Table.

GEORGE ALLEN, Jr., ...*Boston.*
C. J. CAPEN, ...*Dedham.*
} RESIDENT EDITORS. {
ELBRIDGE SMITH, *Cambridge.*
E. S. STEARNS, *W. Newton.*

THE MASSACHUSETTS TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

THE Ninth Annual Meeting of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association, will be held in Boston, on Monday and Tuesday, the 21 and 22d of November.

The Association will assemble on Monday P. M., at 3 o'clock, for the transaction of preliminary business, and to hear the report of the Treasurer, and of the Special Committees to whom have been assigned respectively the following duties: — To petition the Legislature for a Charter.— To report what amendments to the Constitution are needed.— To superintend the Publication of the Transactions.— To report in regard to a Seal for the Association, and a Form of Certificate of Membership.— To petition the Legislature for pecuniary aid.—To examine also be assigned for the election of officers for the ensuing year. the Prize Essays, and report in regard to the same. A time will

Lectures will be delivered as follows: Monday evening, at 7½ o'clock, by Professor Calvin E. Stowe, of Andover.— Subject, "The Use of the Bible in a course of Elementary Education."

Tuesday, P. M., at 3 o'clock, by C. C. Chase, Esq., Principal of the High School, Lowell. — Subject, "The kind of School Government demanded by our Free Institutions."

Tuesday Evening, at 7½ o'clock, by Edward Beecher, D. D., of Boston. Subject — "The Influence of the Emotions and Passions in the Culture of the Intellectual Faculties."

Discussions will be held upon the following subjects: — "The Best Methods of imparting Moral Instruction in Schools;" — "School Supervision;" "The Self-reporting System of School Government;" or upon such subjects as the Business Committee shall recommend.

It is expected that the usual facility by the railroads will be extended to teachers attending the meeting.

Teachers and friends of education generally are invited to be present and participate in the deliberations.

The place for the meeting of the Association is necessarily omitted.

CHARLES J. CAPEN, Sec. M. T. A.

CIRCULAR.

Notice to the School Committees, and others whom it may concern, of the several towns of the Commonwealth, respecting the "State Scholarships," and the "Aid to Attendants on the State Normal Schools," provided for by the Legislature at its last session.

I. State Scholarships.

By the first Section of the Act, entitled "An Act establishing State Scholarships," approved April 27, 1853, chapter 193, forty-eight State Scholarships are established "to aid in educating and training young men for the office of principal Teacher in the High Schools of the Commonwealth."

By the Second Section it is enacted, that in the year 1854, again in the year 1861, and every ten years thereafter, the Commonwealth shall be divided by the Board of Education into forty Sections, and these Sections arranged in four classes of ten Sections each in the manner therein directed, each of which classes of Sections shall be entitled to one scholarship for each of its Sections alternately once in every four years, beginning in the year 1854. Notice of this division and arrangement is to be given by the Secretary of the Board of Education to the School Committee of each town in the Commonwealth.

The third Section provides that the School Committee of every town, in each class of Sections, may in the year designated recommend, as candidates for Schalarships, one or more young men, inhabitants of their town, who, in their opinion, and in the opinion of a competent teacher, to be certified in writing to the Board of Education, will be well fitted for college at the commencement next succeeding, and that the Board of Education, together with the Senators respectively who shall for the time being reside within the Section from which the selection is to be made, shall select from the candidates so recommended, one in each Section whom they shall judge most deserving and most likely to become useful as a teacher. If no Senator shall reside within said Section, the Board alone are to make the selection, and in case of a deficiency of candidates from the class of Sections from which the selection is to be made in any particular year, the Board may complete the number from the State at large.

Section fourth provides for the selection of two other candidates by the Board alone in each year, thus completing the number of forty-eight to be selected in four years.

In other parts of the Act it is provided that one hundred dollars per annum shall be paid to each scholar so selected, for the term of four years, while attending any college in the commonwealth, provided he shall produce from the President of such college a certificate that he has been, during the year, *faithful in his studies*, exemplary in his deportment, and that *ranks in scholarship among the first half of his class*, and

twenty-five dollars per term, for two terms, during which he may attend any one of the State Normal Schools after leaving college; that each scholar so aided shall teach in the public schools in the Commonwealth a term of time equal to that for which he has received the bounty of the Commonwealth, and that, if he shall fail so to teach, he shall refund the amount received, or a part thereof, in proportion to the time he shall so fail, provided he be in competent health, and can find employment. The last section makes the necessary appropriations to sustain and carry out the foregoing provisions. Such is the import of the Act to establish State Scholarships.

The Board of Education will hold a special meeting in January next, for the purpose of dividing the State into sections and classes of sections, according to the provisions of the Act before mentioned, and immediately thereafter the Secretary of the Board will give notice to the School Committees, informing them of said division and classification, and of the order in which they will thereafter be entitled to present candidates for scholarships, according to the provisions of said Act.

II. Aid to Attendants on the State Normal Schools.

The following is the "Resolve, for Aid to Attendants on the State Normal Schools," approved April 30, 1853. Chapter 62.

"*Resolved*, That as the attendance on the State Normal Schools is more expensive to persons living remote from them, than to those living in or near the towns where they are situated; and as the wages paid for teaching in the public schools, are usually less in towns thus remote than in those in the immediate vicinity of said schools, where an increased interest in education is generally created through their influence, from and after April 1, 1853, the Board of Education shall be authorized to receive annually, on their requisition from the Treasurer of the Commonwealth, in conformity with the provisions of the 219th, of the laws of 1846, a sum not exceeding $1,000, for each of the State Normal Schools, to be expended in aid of those who find it difficult to meet the expense necessarily incurred by attending the same; the distribution of said sum to be left to the discretion of the Board, after consulting the Principal of each school where such aid is rendered."

Pursuant to the provisions of the foregoing Resolve, and in accordance with what appears to be the intention of the Legislature as expressed in the preamble thereof, the Board of Education, at its late meeting, held June 3, 1853, adopted the following plan for distributing the sums appropriated for the purpose aforesaid.

"1. The sum to be distributed to the pupils, of each school, in any one term, shall not exceed $333.33, and any unexpended balance of a previous term.

"2. The distribution shall be confined to the second and third terms of the attendance of pupils, and to those who reside ten or more miles from the school.

"3. The distribution shall be made only to those pupils who have not the means of defraying the expenses of a course of instruction at the Normal Schools, and who shall bring from the school committees of the town in which they reside, a certificate to that effect, and who shall give entire satisfaction to the Board, of their possessing the character, habits of application and capacity requisite for becoming successful teachers.

"4. The distribution shall be made to such pupils as afore said, in the following proportions: to each pupil who lives ten and under twenty miles from the school, by the nearest route, a sum, the amount of which shall depend upon the number, among whom the whole is to be distributed; to those who live twenty, and under thirty miles from the school, twice as much to each as to one of the first class; and to those who live thirty miles or more from the school, three times as much to each as to one of the first class; provided that the first class of pupils, shall not receive more than fifty cents per week, each; those of the second class, not more than one dollar per week, each; and those of the third class, not more than one dollar and fifty cents per week, each.

"5. The distribution aforesaid, shall be made by the Visiting Committee of each school, after consulting the Principal of such school.

"6. The first distribution shall be made for the Autumn term of the year 1853."

By Order of the Board of Education.

BARNAS SEARS,
Secretary of the Board of Education.

Boston, June 14, 1853.

The failure of this number of the "Teacher" to appear on the 1st of the month is on account of its having been delayed for the purpose of inserting the Circular of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association. The Publisher, Mr. Samuel Coolidge, has ever been prompt in the performance of his duties, and neither in this nor in any other case, is he responsible for delay in the issue of this Journal. He has been especially zealous in his efforts for punctuality. We believe this is the first instance of failure during the year. We trust the apology will be deemed sufficient.

THE

MASSACHUSETTS TEACHER.

Vol. VI, No. 12.] JONATHAN TENNEY, EDITOR OF THIS NO. [Dec. 1853.

THE SCHOOLS AND SCHOOLMASTERS OF SCOTLAND.

"THE School and the Church," says a distinguished native of Caledonia, "the light of learning and the light of religion, form the glory of Scotland. These have twined around her rustic brow a wreath of fadeless glory. These have given her stability and worth, beauty and renown." The same we may as truly say of our own New England. Indeed, in many respects, our

> "Land of the forest and the rock,
> Of dark blue lake and mighty river,
> Of mountains reared aloft to mock
> The storm's career, the lightning's shock,"

resembles "Auld Scotia's hills and dales,"

> "Land of brown heath and shaggy wood,
> Land of the mountain and the flood."

We owe Scotland much; — much as scholars, as teachers, as men; for our fireside delights, our institutions of religion and learning, our wholesome principles of government. Need we but name Knox and Buchanan; Blair and Chalmers; Robertson and Hume; Smith and Reid; Stewart and Brown; McIntosh, Brougham, Jeffrey and Wilson; Dick and McCheyne; Burns, Campbell, Scott, Hogg and Montgomery, with other illustrious names, which it would be impossible to enumerate in a few lines, to impress the American scholar and patriot with his obligations to Scottish mind? Now, what has contributed to its development? "The School and the Church," our own glory. And did not our own fathers get their first ideas of the Free School and the Free Church from Scotland?

As early as 1494, in the reign of James IV, an act was passed by the Scotch Legislature, requiring Barons and Freeholders to send their children to school from the ages of six to nine years, and afterwards to the Academical Institutes. About twenty years after, in 1615, the Bishops, with the Landlords or "Heritors," were *empowered* "to establish schools in *every parish.*" Thus was established the parochial school system of Scotland, which has continued without interruption, but with improvement, ever since, a period of nearly two hundred and fifty years. This act, it will be noticed, was five years before our fathers landed on the "wild New England shore." In the year 1696, the establishment of such schools in every parish, was *directed* by law; thus compelling those who neglected to use the power given by the former statute. The heritors and the parish minister had the selection of the schoolmaster; the former, the duty of erecting the school-house and the master's dwelling-house, and the payment of his salary. This was regulated by law at £5 11*s.* 1*d.* as a minimum; twice that amount as a maximun stipend. The Presbyteries had in trust the general supervision of the schools severally situated in them. In like manner did our New England clergy, in early times, by custom, supervise the schools in their several towns, and, indeed, have the chief direction of educational affairs, including the selection of teachers even.

The salaries of teachers in Scotland have been raised so that they cannot be, in the parish schools, less than £25 13*s.* $3\frac{3}{8}$*d.* but they often far exceed this amount. Besides the public support, the masters usually receive trifling fees from their pupils, and often hold parish and other offices that increase their income. In these schools are taught Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, the higher Mathematics to some extent, with many other branches of learning needful to practical men, and also the Ancient Classics. Here has been the early, and ofttimes the only school discipline of some of Scotland's worthiest sons; hither are to be traced the influences which produce such results on the common mind of that noble land, making the name of Scotchman, the world over, but another name for business shrewdness, imdomitable energy and boldness, large intelligence, and deep-seated manly virtue; making her scholars corner stones in the Temple of Science and Literature.

Hear a native of Scotia, now an eminent clergyman of one of the cities of this Scotia of the New World, as he speaks with the warm and elevated enthusiasm of that race, of the school and schoolmaster of his youthful days.

"Recrossing the North Esk," — near which river DeQuincy lives, and Walter Scott once dwelt in a cottage, — "we ramble through the country in a north-easterly direction, passing through

highly cultivated farms, with large, comfortable homesteads. The fields everywhere are filled with laborers, hoeing, ploughing and weeding, most of them as blithe as larks, and making the woods ring with "whistle and song." That plain, but substantial edifice under the shadow of the great oak tree hard by the old church, is a parish school-house, in which are gathered perhaps some fifty or sixty boys and girls from all ranks of society, plying their mental tasks under the supervision of an intelligent schoolmaster. Every morning in that school-house the word of God is reverently read, and earnest prayer is offered exerting upon all minds a healthful moral influence, and producing impressions of a religious kind which may last forever. Any boy may be fitted for college, or for commercial pursuits in such a school; and the expense to the parent will be next to nothing. What then must be the amount of good accomplished by the combined influence of all the parish schools of Scotland, equally endowed and supplied with adequate teachers.

"Popular Education has made great advances in Scotland within a few years. The greatest zeal for learning exists among the people, and they require no compulsive acts, as in Germany, to induce them to send their children to school. Not to be able to read and write is regarded in Scotland as a great disgrace; and hence the poorest people are equally ready with the rich to avail themselves of the benefit of instruction.

"Good teachers are uniformly secured, because they receive ample compensation and none but well-educated and truly moral men would be accepted. In this respect their situation is greatly superior to that of parish schoolmasters (public school teachers) in Germany or in the United States. On this subject, Kohl, the German traveller, mentions an amusing conversation which he had with the parish schoolmaster at Muthil. Having stated to the latter that the situation of Scottish teachers was far superior to that of teachers in his country, he inquired what was the average pay of schoolmasters there.

"It varies a good deal," was the reply of Kohl. "Some have a hundred, some have a hundred and fifty, but many no more than fifty dollars."

"How many pounds go to a dollar?" asked he.

"Seven dollars go to a pound."

"What!" he exclaimed, springing up from his chair, "do you mean to tell me that they pay a schoolmaster with *seven pounds* a year?"

"Even so," was the reply, "seven pounds. But how much do they get with you?"

"I know no one who has less than from £40 to £50 in all Scotland; but the average is £70 or £80, and many go up as high as £150."

"What!" cried Kohl, springing up in his turn, "£150! why that makes $1050! a baron would be satisfied in Germany with such revenue as that. And do you mean to say that there are schoolmasters who grumble at it?"

"Yes," said he, "but recollect how dear things are with us. Sugar costs 18*d.* a pound; coffee, 2*s*; chocolate is still dearer, and tea not much cheaper. And then how dear are good beef, and pork, and plums and puddings, and everything else!"

"I could not deny this," adds Kohl; "but I thought that our poor schoolmasters were content if they had but bread."

"In former times the parish schoolmasters did not receive so much as they now do; but they were clerks of the parish; frequently *precentors* in the church, and received a multitude of little perquisites. Their support has been made quite ample, having an average salary of £100, with a free house."

"A free house!" Hear that, New England teacher, and jump from your chair in astonishment. None but clergymen and corporation agents have "free houses" with us; the former, but seldom now, compared with former times. And how, on the whole, is the average of teachers' wages in our country, in New England even, compared with that of our Scotch brethren?

But here is the Scotch schoolmaster of olden times. "But the sight of that school-house brings back the days of 'lang syne.' Well do I remember the old parish school, a long thatched building, at the 'Kirk of Shotts,' where I received my preparation for College under the free and easy but most efficient administration of 'Dominie Meuross,' famed through all the country for his great classical attainments, his facetious disposition, his kind-heartedness, and his love of the pure 'Glenlivet.' Those were not days of temperance societies, and the Dominie had so much to do with christenings and weddings, parish difficulties, 'roups' and lawsuits, that he was greatly tempted by the bottle. But he was a worthy man, and an enthusiastic teacher, especially of the classics. Teaching A B C was rather dull business to the Dominie;—but oh, how merrily he would construe the Odes of Horace; what jokes he would crack over our lessons; and what effulgent light he would cast upon the classic page! Yet Dominie Meuross was a dignified man,—no one more so. The boys, indeed, enjoyed considerable latitude, especially at the end of the school opposite the one in which the Dominie sat; and many facetious tricks were played upon the duller boys, the 'sumphs,' as we used to call them. But the Dominie had only to pull down his glasses from his forehead, where they were usually perched, and direct *a keen glance* to 'the other end,' instantly to bring us all to

perfect order. Dear old man! He has long ago 'gone to the yird;' but his memory is green as the grass which waves upon his grave."

Of these parochial and the endowed schools, there are now in Scotland, 4,836; number of children entitled to their privileges, 181,467, averaging one school to a fraction less than 38 children.

Let us learn from other lands; let us be profited by the lessons they teach; let us not forget to render them their due.

CO-WORKERS WITH GOD.

The teacher who directs, develops and instructs the mind of a child, is a co-worker with Him who came from heaven as the Great Teacher; who took little children in his arms and blessed them; who taught the people many things in the Synagogues, and in every place where he found them assembled; who kept with himself continually, a select class of pupils, teaching them daily into all knowledge, as never man taught; who has spoken of wisdom as the principal thing; who imparts, even now, to all who trustingly ask him, liberally, without money and without price: and who has prepared for the constant guidance of teacher and pupil, the best Text-Book ever penned.

BUSINESS QUALITIES OF PROFESSIONAL MEN.

Generally speaking, professional men are notoriously deficient in business qualities. As an illustration of this, the following good story is told of Sir Isaac Newton. A learned foreigner had invented a mathematical instrument, of which the great Newton entertained a high opinion, and had formed great expectations. The Royal Society received one as a present, and Sir Isaac hearing of its arrival, hurried down to the custom house to secure it and take it away. The duty was to be paid *ad valorem*. The President of the Royal Society being asked its value, labored hard to impress the custom house officers with the fact that its value was "immense," and its worth "absolutely incalculable." Upon this, they charged him a good round price — in fact, a good deal more than the Society thought the thing was worth. However, the duty was paid; but the Royal Society took pretty good care that the great calculator should never afterwards transact their custom house business.

NATURE'S NOBILITY.

BY THE REV. GEORGE ASPINWALL.

Room for a nobleman to pass!
In costly robes? in trappings gay?
A fop tricked out before the glass?
No! clad in sober gray,
A nobleman in *heart* is he,
With *mind* for his nobility.

His crest, a soul in virtue strong,
His arms, a heart with candor bright;
Which gold bribes not to what is wrong,
Nor blinds to what is right;
The patent of his courtly race—
Behold it in his open face.

He cringes not on those above,
Nor tramples on the worm below;
Misfortunes cannot cool his love,
Or flattery make it grow:
Stanch to his friends in woe or weal,
As is the magnet to the steel.

He envies not the deepest sage;
He scoffs not at the meanest wight:
And all the war that he doth wage,
Is in the cause of right;
For broad estate, and waving land,
He has the poor man's willing hand.

He is not rich, and yet indeed
Has wealth; nor poor, has stock, though small;
Nor rich, he gives so much to need;
Not poor, for on him fall
Such blessings from relieved distress,
To crown his path with happiness.

Room for a lord, ye truckling crew,
Who round earth's great ones fawn and whine:
Fall back! and gaze on something new:
A lord, at least in mind—
That bravest work in nature's plan,
An upright, independent man.

WEBSTER ON EDUCATION.

Costly apparatus and splendid cabinets have no magical power to make scholars. In all circumstances, as man is under God the master of his own fortune, so he is the maker of his own mind. The Creator has so constituted the human intellect, that it can grow only by its own action; and by its own action it most certainly and necessarily grows. Every man must, therefore, in an important sense, educate himself. His books and teachers are but helps; the work is his. A man is not educated till he has the ability to summon, in case of emergency, all his mental power in vigorous exercise to effect his proposed object. It is not the man who has seen most, or who has read most, who can do this. Such a one is in danger of being borne down like a beast of burden, by an overloaded mass of other men's thoughts. Nor is it the man who can boast merely of native vigor and capacity. The greatest of all warriors that went to the siege of Troy, had the preëminence, not because nature had given him the most strength, and he carried the largest bow, but because self-discipline taught him how to bend it. — *D. Webster.*

A LITTLE KNOWLEDGE NOT DANGEROUS.

If we were to compare the value of much with that of little learning, there is no concession in favor of the much that we would not willingly make. But in comparing small acquisitions with none at all, it appears equally absurd to consider a little learning valueless, or even dangerous, as some will have it, as to talk of a little virtue, a little wealth or health, or cheerfulness, or a little of any other blessing under heaven, being worthless or dangerous. To abjure any degree of information, because we cannot grasp the whole circle of the sciences, or sound the depths of erudition, appears to be just about as sensible as if we were to shut up our windows, because they are too narrow, or because the glass has not the magnifying power of a telescope. For the smallest quantity of knowledge that a man can acquire, he is bound to be contentedly thankful, provided his fate shuts him out from the power of acquiring a larger portion; but whilst the possibility of farther advancement remains, let him be as proudly discontented as he pleases with his little learning.—*Thomas Campbell.*

SCHOOLS OF THE OLDEN TIME.

[Mr. Crosby, Secretary of the Board of Education for this State, says the Maine Farmer, while attending the meeting of the Institute in Aroostook County, was lucky enough to crib the following original poetry, which he gives us in his valuable paper, the Common School Advocate, published at Belfast, and which should be extensively patronized. The poetry is full of old and gentle remembrances.]

The schools—the schools of other days!
Those were the schools for me,
When, in a frock and trowsers dressed,
I learned my A B C.

When with my dinner in my hat,
I trudged away to school,
Nor dared to stop, as the boys do now,—
For school-ma'ams had a *rule*.

With locks well combed and face so clean,—
Boys washed their faces then—
And a "stick horse" to ride upon,—
What happy little men!

And if a traveller we met,
We threw no sticks or stones,
To fright the horses as they passed,
Or break good people's bones.

But with our hats beneath our arms,
We bent our heads full low,
For ne'er the school-ma'am failed to ask,
"Boys, did you make a bow?"

And all the little girls with us
Would courtesy full low,
And hide their ankles 'neath their gowns,—
Girls don't have ankles now.

We stole no fruit, nor tangled grass,
We played no noisy games,
And when we spoke to older folks,
Put *handles on their names.*

And when the hour for school had come,
Of bell we had no need,
The school-ma'am's rap upon the glass,
Each one would quickly heed.

The school-ma'am—Heaven bless her name!
When shall we meet her like?
She always wore a green calash,
A calico vandyke.

She never sported pantalets,
No silks on her did rustle—
Her dress hung gracefully all around.
She never wore a *bustle*.

With modest mien and loving heart,
Her daily task was done,
And true as needle to the pole,
The next one was begun.

The days were all alike to her,
The evenings just the same,
And neither brought a change to us,
Till Saturday forenoon came.

And then we had a "spelling match,"
And learned the sounds of A,
The months and weeks that made the year,
The hours that made the day.

And on that day we saw her smile,—
No other time smiled she—
'Twas then she told us learnedly,
When next "leap year" would be.

Alas!—kind soul!—though leap year came,
And went full many a time,
In "single blessedness" she toiled,
Till far beyond her prime.

But now, indeed, her toils are all o'er,
Her lessons are all said,
Her rules well learned, her words well spelled,
She's *gone up to the head.*

SCHOOLMASTERS.—A schoolmaster who likes his vocation, feels towards the boys who deserve his favor something like a thrifty and thriving father towards the children for whom he is scraping together wealth; he is contented that his humble and patient industry should produce fruit, not for himself, but for them, and looks with pride to a result in which it is impossible for him to partake, and which in all likelihood he may never live to see.

CLEARNESS AND DISTINCTNESS OF SPEECH.

Mr. Jones, in his Life of Bishop Horne, speaking of Dr. Hinchcliffe, Bishop of Peterborough, says, that in the pulpit he spoke with the accent of a man of sense, such as he really was in the superior degree; but it was remarkable, and, to those who did not know the cause, mysterious, that there was not a corner of the church in which he could not be heard distinctly. The reason which Mr. Jones assigned was, that he made it an invariable rule *to do justice to every consonant, knowing that the vowels would speak for themselves.* And thus he became the surest and clearest of speakers; his elocution was perfect, and never disappointed his audience.

THE EDUCATION OF OUR GRANDMOTHERS.

Miss Ophelia's ideas of education, like all her other ideas, were very set and definite; and of the kind that prevailed in New England a century ago, and which are still preserved in some very retired and unsophisticated parts, where there are no railroads. As near as could be expressed, they would be comprised in a very few words;—to teach children to mind when they were spoken to; to teach them the catechism, sewing, and reading, and to whip them if they told lies; and though, of course, in the flood of light that is now poured on education, these are left far in the rear, yet it is an undisputed fact that our grandmothers raised some tolerably fair men and women under this regimen, as many of us can remember and testify. —*Harriet Beecher Stowe.*

A Massachusetts merchant writes, "When a boy, I went to a man who governed his school by love and kindness. The boys loved to obey him, and although he died twenty-five years ago, his pleasing countenance is still before me, and were I a painter, I would gladly draw his portrait, and hang it in my parlor for my children to look at."

Are faithful teachers forgotten by worthy pupils? Are not *such* teachers respected? Do not these testimonials of these noble students under noble teachers find a like in the heart of every noble man and woman who reads this? These are some *of our rewards*, nor are they small.

JOHN ADAMS AS A SCHOOLMASTER.

When John Adams, the second President of the United States, was engaged in the instruction of youth, in the present city of Worcester, in the year 1756, he said: "It awakens in my heart peculiar interest to regard my school as the world in miniature, to consider that before me are the land's future governors, legislators, divines, and counsellors. I have only to imagine, what may prove true, that this one is a prospective ruler, that one a legislator, and another a minister, to stimulate me to that course of effort without which youth for these respective spheres may be lost to the world."

In a letter to his classmate, Gov. John Wentworth, dated Worcester, April 12th, 1758, Mr. Adams says, "I have resigned my school, I have recovered my health. Te Deum, &c." Some of his letters to his wife respecting the education of his son, John Quincy, reveal just views of education.

LEGAL ITEMS.

☞Some of the teachers of the Holyoke Public Schools applied that sort of punishment spoken of by Solomon to a dirty boy who persisted in chewing tobacco and spitting the juice on the school-room-floor. They were recently brought to trial at Springfield for thus abridging the lad's liberty, and acquitted of course.

☞A case was lately brought before the Court of Common Pleas in Barnstable County, in which a father charged a female teacher with assault in whipping his boy. As is often the case, the action seems to have been prompted very much by malice. The teacher was acquitted, the Judge instructing the jury that a teacher is always justified in resorting to such punishment where the discipline of the school cannot well be maintained without it.

☞A boy, a member of one of the Grammar Schools in the city of Manchester, N. H., was brought before the Police Court by the School Committee, and fined for assaulting his teacher. He was punished in school, and attacked the teacher while on his way to dinner, by throwing stones and clubs, and finally by striking him on the head with a club. If his parents had taken Solomon's advice a little earlier, he had been a better boy. Society must train him now.

A HAPPY THOUGHT.

Some sweet warbler in the *London Times* utters the following beautiful sentiment. Lay it to heart, friends. It contains gentle but heart-reaching reproof.

There is a voice within me,
And 'tis so sweet a voice,
That its soft lispings win me,
Till tears start to mine eyes;
Deep from my soul it springeth,
Like hidden melody;
And evermore it singeth
This song of songs to me:—
"This world is full of beauty,
As other worlds above;
And if we did our duty,
It might be full of love!"

DUTY, AND ONE WHO DID IT.

It is the duty of every one to follow the profession he has chosen with the fullest application; for in this way alone can the greatest good be done.

All duty is religious, because man is bound by the law of his being to perform it. God has marked out the path of duty for every one.

Nothing can be more satisfactory to the dying man than the thought that he has done his duty; that his life has been useful to the world which he is leaving; for it is then that he reviews his life seriously and finally, and every thing misdone comes up in his mind. If he has done all in his power to promote some worthy cause to which his native predilection or God's providence inclined him, he may then go hence satisfied and with a calm trust in the future. Teacher, do your duty.

These words are extracted from the manuscripts of one who was very dear to the writer,—as a brother dear,—and who has now gone hence to reap the reward of a life of duty. Mr. A. P. F. Tenney died March 9, 1853, in Concord, N. H., and his mortal remains were consigned to their native dust on his nineteenth birth-day. His was a life of deeds, not years; thoughts, not breath. He was a teacher. Talented, intelligent beyond his years, amiable, and strictly conscientious in the discharge of *every known* duty, he had done well what he could. Very *retiring* and thoughtful, only the thoughtful and observing good *knew him* well. The unworthy knew him only afar off. The

Great Teacher wanted to take him home; and at his call he suddenly left those who must long mourn the loss of his society. But many loved him, and felt the mighty influence of his quiet and excellent life. That love lives; that influence lives. Both ever will. The good can never die. That they *were*, renders this life a more holy thing; that they *are*, renders that better life more to be desired. His pupils loved him while he was yet with them; they followed his mortality to its final resting place; they weep over his grave. Isn't it everything to try to do one's duty? Who will ever be sorry that he feared God rather than man? When will he be sorry? This young, devoted, and promising teacher had learned to say, in no trifling spirit, "that the teacher's duties are very serious in their nature, viewed in their relations both to this life and the next." He, alone, felt very doubtful whether he was fitted for the discharg of them; others who knew him best, had great confidence in his present ability, and hope of his future eminence.

Oh, how mournfully beautiful these lines; how applicable to h m of whom we speak, and who, being dead, yet speaks to us, "Teachers, do your duty."

"'T is ever thus, 't is ever thus with all that's best below,
The dearest, noblest, loveliest, are always first to go;
The bird that sings the sweetest, the vine that crowns the rock,
The glory of the garden, the flower of the flock."

For The Massachusetts Teacher.

OUR PROFESSION.

It is universally admitted by teachers, that, as yet, our pro fession does not occupy that rank in public estimation to which its importance entitles it. We deem it matter for rejoicing that opinions, different from those formerly entertained, are gradually gaining ground; that the idea that any man of fair moral character can teach successfully is driven from the minds of a portion of our community. I propose in this paper to direct attention to some of the causes which retard the progress of public opinion in relation to the true position of the professional teacher. Too many of us fail duly to appreciate the importance of our mission. Our influence does not cease with the close of our daily labors; it is felt, it *must* be felt, not only through this life, but in the world beyond the grave. I have long been in the habit of considering the professions of preacher and teacher as similar in many respects. Indeed, we know that *Christ and his* apostles united the two offices, for "they went

about teaching and preaching the gospel." In later times, however, the two vocations have been, in some measure, made distinct and separate. The aim of the preacher is to elevate the moral, and through that the intellectual condition of his charge, while the true teacher strives to improve and strengthen the intellect, and through that the moral faculties. I shall not attempt to institute a lengthy comparison between the two professions, or to prove, what I believe may easily be shown, that they are *equally* entitled to respect and consideration, but to investigate the reasons why this respect *is not* equally awarded. The cause which underlies all others, is this; we find all clergymen looking upon their profession as the one most important; they enter upon it with the fixed purpose of devoting all their time and talents, while life lasts, to advance the great interests of humanity. In pursuing it, they seek not the applause of men, but of God, and are content to be guided by their convictions of duty. Many teachers, on the other hand, regard their profession merely as the stepping-stone to some other; they purpose to engage in it for a few months or years only. While engaged in teaching, their chief aim is to be popular, regardless of the true interests of their schools. This end they seek to attain, by showy and superficial methods of teaching, by brilliant and successful examinations, by indulging the children of the rich and influential, by frequent calls upon parents, by newspaper puffs, and in short, by sacrificing what should be dear to every man, personal independence. That these, and similar practices, are resorted to by many, all will bear me witness. But sir, says Mr. A. or B., "warm friends of education." are not such methods unworthy any man, especially a teacher? Certainly they are;—yet, perhaps, some who pretend to take much interest in educational matters are partly to blame. Does not Mr. A. deem it essential to a good teacher that Johnny or Sarah like him? Must not the scholars in our school make as much progress in their studies, in a given time, as in any other school in town? Must we not have an examination at the close of each term, and does not the chief merit, and *only* good, of examinations consist in the readiness with which certain questions are answered? Is not an article in a newspaper, commending a school, proof positive of superior excellence? But I do not seek apologies for such conduct. Even those who resort to such means, acknowledge it to be wrong. If wrong, it should be corrected, and it can easily be done. Let every teacher who respects himself and his profession, expose such a state of things, wherever it may exist; let the fallacy that the most popular teacher *is most* worthy, be exploded; let the quarterly or semiannual examination be made to give place to an every-day examination by those interested; let all recollect that quack medicines

are sometimes advertised; and many motives for such conduct cease to exist. Who can doubt that our profession, purged of such unworthy members, would rank deservedly higher than at present? Never till honorable and independent men fill all our schools, can we take up our proper position in the front rank of professions. A.

For The Massachusetts Teacher.

THE POWER OF EXAMPLE.

As we were seated at our window, a few days since, we were shocked to hear, in the street below, oaths of the most profane character, falling from the lips of a little boy, apparently about three years old. Such profanity, from the lips of what should be an innocent child, grated harshly indeed upon our ears. After persuading him to desist, with little doubt as to what would be the result, we made some inquiries, to ascertain the cause of such depravity, and learned that oaths fell from the lips of his parents as *household words*. Thus, by example, had he been taught to utter oaths among his earliest lispings.

A beautiful illustration of teaching by example is drawn from an incident recorded in natural history, by Sir H. Davy. Above one of the crags of Ben Nevis, two parent eagles were teaching their offspring, two young eaglets, the manœuvres of flight. They began by rising from the top of the mountain, making small circles at first, the two young birds imitating them. Pausing on the wing till they had made their first circle, they then took a second and larger gyration, rising higher and higher, the young still slowly following, and apparently flying better as they mounted. Thus they continued the sublime exercise, always rising, till they became mere points in the air, and the young ones were lost, and afterwards, their parents, to the aching sight.

Children are like the eaglets. They do what they see others do. Would a child ever be guilty of swearing if it did not have the example of some profane person to imitate? Children are wonderful imitators; they appear to be original, when in reality they are only imitating. How many of the amusements of children are imitations of men's acts! Well do we remember our first sight of a water-wheel, and the almost instantaneous resolve to place a miniature one in the little brook that dashes down the hill-side; and how ardently we labored in its construction, and after damming up the stream, and placing our wheel under the falling sheet, what was our delight to see our little *wheel roll over* just as did the great wheel at the mill!

Building houses, walls, fences, wagons, &c., playing horse, soldier, and even school-teaching, — these are some of the most common of their sports.

Again, every boy living in the country, must have his "little garden" in one corner of his father's domain, and must have his miniature hoe, spade, rake, &c. And what girl but has her little teaset, and occasionally goes through the operation of waiting on her friends in her mother's best style?

Example influences children more than precept. Some one has truly said that children are more attracted by the good, than by the true, and more by the beautiful, than by the good. Truths conveyed through the eye are more deeply impressed than any others. We would have the teacher remember that his works have far more influence than his words. We shall never forget a lesson, given us by one of our early teachers, on the habit of neatness, and the perfect contempt with which we regarded it, from the fact that the teacher himself was in the habit of using the filthy weed, and spitting the extracts about the school-room, to our serious annoyance. If the teacher wishes his pupils to have proper regard for neatness, he must be a pattern for them; and so with other habits. Do you wish to form habits of industry among your pupils? show them by your example, that you value every moment. Do you wish them rightly to prize education? show them the thousand ways in which you are benefited by it. Do you wish to implant in them a sacred regard for truth? show them that your acts are in strict conformity with your words. In all your intercourse with them, give them an example of what you wish them to be, and though they may not all reach the standard, it will ever be before the eye, and they may come nearer to it than either you or they anticipated. A teacher, who has had more than ordinary success, was asked how she succeeded in interesting her pupils to such a degree. She replied, By being first interested myself.

The great work of the teacher is, to make those placed under his charge better. Socrates declared learning to be useless, unless it made its possessor better; and the lesson taught by his example, especially at his trial and death, was far more deeply impressed than any of those which fell from his lips. His words were lost in the ears of those who listened to him, but, by his example, he still lives.

Because the influence of example is a silent one, let it not be neglected; but let every teacher be such that it may in truth be said of him, "His life was gentle, and the elements so mixed, that nature might stand up and say to all the world, That is a man."

W.

THE FAITHFUL TEACHER'S REWARD.

Rev. Thomas Starr King, at the late Fourth of July celebration at Portsmouth, N. H., concluded some very pleasing remarks touching his reminiscences of boyhood days in that city, "with a beautiful allusion to Mr. Harris's school, and the effects of a correct system of early training upon his youthful mind."

Mrs. Sigourney, herself for several years a successful teacher, says, in her "Letters to my Pupils," that gem of a book, which every teacher would do well to read, speaking of her own early instruction, "I may be in danger of lingering too long amid these tender recollections. Yet, ere I part from them I would fain renew the tribute of gratitude to all my revered instructors. Though most of them are resting in their graves, the benefits they have conferred are not limited by time, any more than the ethereal soul is bound to this speck and span of mortal existence."

The Hon. Edward Everett lately addressedthe "New Hampshire State Agricultural Fair," held at Manchester. In his address he said, with feeling,—

"Mr. President, though it has not been my good fortune to be personally much acquainted with this part of your State, I have early associations of the most kindly and agreeable nature with another part of New Hampshire. In the spring time, not of the year, but of my life, I was sent into it in pursuit of a species of culture, which you will allow to be not of inferior importance to that of the soil; I mean the culture of the mind. I was sent, for a short time, when quite a lad, to the Academy at Exeter, and the only regret that mingles in my recollection of it is,— that I did not longer enjoy the advantages of that excellent institution and the paternal care of its beloved and venerated Principal, Dr. Abbot. Yes, sir, if you will pardon me this reminiscence of my boyhood, I remember, but as yesterday, —for it was the first time I ever left the parental roof, — being called at about four o'clock in the morning, in the month of February, to get ready for what was then thought a hard day's work, —the journey from Boston to Exeter. When a boy between twelve and thirteen starts alone before daybreak in the winter o go from home to boarding school, the distances do not seem particularly short."

☞Some boys lately broke into the High School house in New Bedford, stole some knives, pencils, a d the like, besides doing some other mischief. They were soon arrested, examined, and bound over for trial, having gained a bad name, and the prospect of a long and dreary home in prison, for this act.

TRIP TO EUROPE.

I see that many churches now-a-days are giving leave of absence to their pastors, that they may make journeys to Europe or elsewhere, for health, pleasure, knowledge, fame, or other "good and sufficient reason," continuing their salaries, paying their expenses, and sometimes promising an *enlargement* in this direction, on their return to their flock.

Now this is well, if it save a good man from premature decay, if it is due him as a debt of gratitude for services that cannot be paid for in money, if it furnish him, as it ought to, with new and large opportunities for extending his information and improving his manners, thereby increasing his prospective influence and usefulness.

I have here only to suggest that teachers, who, as is generally acknowledged, are engaged in a toil like severe, exhausting, useful, unpaid, — in a profession demanding the same large and elevating facilities for personal improvement, may have like claims with the clergymen upon the generosity and favor of the cities, towns, or other patrons of them. If worthy men, they may make as good returns to society as they. I hope soon to read in the papers that "Mr. ———, the accomplished, faithful, and popular Principal of ——— school, is about to leave for a trip to Europe, his patrons having voted him leave of absence so long as he may deem it necessary to journey, they supplying his desk, paying his expenses, and increasing his salary by $500 per annum on his return." Perhaps something a *little* less than this would be acceptable to teachers of modest pretensions. Who will furnish the first example?

THE BOYS' REVENGE.

THERE was once residing in a certain New England city, a man of very respectable talents, and great business energy and skill, who had been, for nearly a quarter of a century, a teacher in its public schools. He *stepped* from this *stone* into mercantile business, and endeavored to step into the political walks. He was nominated for the office of Mayor by the dominant political party of the city. The young men of the city who had been his pupils, called a convention, without respect to party, expressly to nominate a candidate in opposition to "Old Master L——." They did nominate a candidate; they did violently oppose their "old master;" they defeated his election by a large vote. Why did they do this? He had been

a man of unrelenting severity in school. His pupils were ruled by fear and caprice; never by love and reason. These boys became men; and now they had their revenge. Moral. It is well for the teacher to remember that "men are but children of a larger growth," that it is "better far to rule by love than fear," that boys will not forget them, when they "have older grown," and that their own happiness and prosperity in after years, may depend very much upon the opinions which their pupils are getting of them to-day.

ANN ORR.

THIS name will sound familiar to some of our readers, but yet to few. She was a teacher,—the patient, toiling, loving and beloved teacher of country district schools, for half a century. We do not propose to write her history. It cannot be written by human pen. True, her light was not put under a bushel; but yet her life was hidden, hidden as ever is the life of the holiest of earth. Few knew how pure her purposes, how elevated her aims; none the deepness of her joys or her griefs. How many can appreciate why she lived as she did? Ah, too few who can write out her plans. They were formed in secret places, between herself and her Maker. Who can tell how she executed them so wisely and so powerfully? It was the mysterious and mighty influence of a matured, sanctified, and noble mind upon the impressible and comparatively pure heart of childhood. Children felt her influence, and now they rise up and call her blessed. They *felt* they loved her, but they could not *tell* how she made them do it, only *she loved them and was good to them.* So she swayed their hearts, and directed them in a way they wot not of. She did it in the seclusion of the school-room; or, now and then, by some sweet rural wayside, or in some other quiet place. So men and women, busy about their care and work, let her have her own way usually; and little could they tell of it, except that their "children liked the school-ma'am." Well that it was so; better had there never been any exception,—such exceptions as busybodies and wiseacres, rainy-day gatherings, and tea-party junkets sometimes get up, even unto this day.

No, we will not try to write her life; but we will try to transmit her memory, to encourage others who are doing as she did. For there have been some noble women like her, as many who read this can testify; and there are many who are this day following in her steps doubtingly. Fear not, my great woman, nothing will be lost. There is a record kept by the recording angel's

pen, where are registered in fairest lines, all your holy aspirations, all your truthful precepts, all your self-denying labors. And it shall be exhibited, too, one day when all can behold it, and its testimony will be of most value to you. It will be the foundation of your title to richest rewards.

But who is Ann Orr? Her grandfather, Daniel Orr, came from North Ireland, with other Scotch-Irish Presbyterians, to Londonderry, New Hampshire, in the year 1726. Her parents were George Orr and Margaret Wallace. Her father losing both his parents by death in infancy, was brought up to the age of 16 years by a near relation, when he became a sailor. It was during the first French war, and he was pressed into the British service, from which he was released in London after three years; again, when the second war broke out, he was a second time pressed into the British Navy, and kept in service seven years. After his escape, he followed trading with the Mackinaw Indians seven years, and served his country awhile in the war of the Revolution at Ticonderoga and elsewhere. Then he settled on a farm in Bedford, Hillsborough Co., N. H., where he died October 17, 1807. In this place was born the subject of our notice, September 21, 1782, and here she was educated, here she lived, and for nearly fifty years, aided in educating others, and died a single woman, in November, 1849. The Hon. Benjamin Orr, who graduated at Dartmouth College, 1798, and held the undisputed distinction for many years, of the most eminent lawyer of the State of Maine; and the late Rev. Isaac Orr, of no mean reputation in our national literature and art, were near relatives of hers. Indeed, her family history is a proud one for talent and influence. "She was an extraordinary character. What she lacked in the graces of refinement, she made up in vigor of thought and action." In conversation she was always sensible and animated; and her active usefulness, with her many acknowledged excellent qualities, made ample amends for any lack of ease of manners and feminine accomplishments.

And now let us hear how her memory is cherished. The following poetical tribute is from a historical poem by one of her pupils: —

"Near half a century flitted by;
The summer's sweetness, winter's sigh,
Still found her at her chosen post,
To educate the youthful host.
Her labor 's o'er; but memory still
Will feel a deep and touching thrill,
As back it passes to those days,
When we indulged in childhood plays."

On the 19th of May, 1850, the 100th anniversary of the incorporation of the town of Bedford was celebrated. Many men *of learning*, fame and influence first breathed the vital air in

this town. Some of those who had received their early instruction from Ann Orr were present on this occasion, and they remembered her; and blessed was her memory. Dr. P. P. Woodbury presided over the "festivities," and in his introductory remarks, said, "At our first meeting to make appointments for the centennial, Ann Orr was with us, and had the second appointment made, that to get the history of the Orr family. This she accomplished in good style. She had a desire to see this occasion. She was the mother of teachers in this vicinity. It is rare to find the person who was born and educated in Bedford for the last half century, but that has been under her instruction more or less."

The Hon. Isaac O. Barnes, of Boston, gave the address, a production of distinguished ability. In it he says, "We had, but a few short months since, here, in our midst, an eminent and striking example of the high moral and intellectual qualities of the Scotch-Irish character in a female, a native of this town, — one whose presence we sadly miss now. It is true she had never endured the horrors of a beleagured town; she had saved no fallen prince from an untimely death; she had captured no city. No emergency ever occurred connecting her name with any perilous or romantic adventure. She was no heroine in the common acceptation of the term. Hers was a life of calm, quiet, steady, but earnest devotion to one great end and purpose, — namely, the moral, religious and intellectual culture of the youth of her time. In this cause she labored and toiled in comparative obscurity, to be sure, for the last fifty years. It is, perhaps, praise enough to say, that at the time of her death, she could, undoubtedly, have summoned around her, more well instructed pupils than any female of her age in New England.

"There are few natives of Bedford who came upon the stage since the commencement of the present century who do not remember with grateful affection the valuable instruction, the kind advice, the pious and excellent precepts and example of ANN ORR. Who of us does not *feel* to-day that we should experience an additional thrill of pleasure, if we were able once more to cluster around our kind-hearted, strong-minded, and sensible old school-mistress, take her by the hand, and ask of her the continuance of the approbation and the blessings which she bestowed upon us when we were her 'boys'?

"But this cannot be. She too has left us. She sleeps on yonder rising ground, never to awake until all are summoned, — the teacher and the taught, — master and pupil, — the learned and the ignorant, — the wise and the foolish, — to render a final account to the Great Judge, whose name she told us to reverence, and whose example she prayed we might imitate."

And finally, says the able historian of her native town,

"among those who have been distinguished as teachers in this town, should be mentioned the name of Ann Orr. For about half a century she taught in various districts of this and other towns with acceptance and success. As a teacher of children she was almost without an equal, and she will long be remembered by a multitude who enjoyed her instructions."

Toward the close of her useful life, her former pupils, dwelling in various parts of the country, and filling many posts of usefulness and honor, united their contributions, and made her a valuable present as a token of their high respect and affectionate regard.

My worthy friend, toiling amid many discouragements to better the minds and hearts of children often thoughtless and wayward, — aiding parents who seldom seem to appreciate your generous and trying efforts to benefit them and theirs, if this record of one who has done and felt as you are doing and feeling, shall stimulate you to continued zeal and greater attainments of like sort, with a hope of a reward like hers here and hereafter, my object is answered.

TEACHERS' DUTIES.

(Revised from "Duties of S. S. Teachers.")

1. Constant and strict punctuality.
2. Thorough acquaintance with the lesson.
3. Regular attendance upon Teachers' Associations.
4. Go from the closet to the school-room.
5. In teaching, be familiar, affectionate, practical, serious, earnest.
6. Converse personally with each scholar respecting his ideas of school life, his habits of mind, his plans for the future, and other things that reveal his history, motives, and aims.
7. Be calm, self-possessed, accessible and affable; combining grace with dignity in your intercourse with your pupils in school and out.
8. Merely asking set questions on the lesson will produce but little good. Let your object in teaching be to draw out the scholar, impress the leading principles, and encourage to a constant and healthful progress.
9. See that your teachings and your daily life and conversation are consistent with each other. Guard well your thoughts, words, and acts; for many who will never forget are watching you.
10. Visit scholars at their homes, especially when they have *been* absent; and seek also to become acquainted with their *parents* and other friends.

11. Often look over the names of your pupils, on your private Register; think of what you have done, and what you can do for them; think of your responsibility to society and to God, in view of the trust committed to you.

12. Bear your scholars on your heart in earnest prayer when you come before the throne of Heavenly Grace.

13. Remember that these pupils have immortal souls, and that your influence upon them must have an eternal bearing.

14. Regard your office as second in importance to none, viewed in all its relations to human good.

15. Cultivate a spirit of manly independence, a desire for improvement, prompting persevering and systematic habits of study, an elevated purpose of usefulness, an unwavering faith, an ardent piety, and sense of constant dependence on Infinite Power, Wisdom and Love for your success.

Teachers! Momentous consequences may result from your performance or neglect of these duties.

OUR HIDDEN JEWELS.

I have somewhere read the story of a faithful steward of a banished young lord, who cut into a young tree on the old estate, and hid under its bark some small but precious jewels belonging to his master. Years went by, and the young exile returned an old man. The steward was gone, but his lord knew well the secret of his deposit. Where the young tree once stood now towered the thrifty oak, with its bark hardened and roughened by time. But well it had kept its trust. Though the tough wood had closed over it, and no eye could divine its hiding-place, it was still there. The tree was felled, and in its very heart the gems were found, not a point broken, not a ray wasted. They flashed up to the light with the same brightness as in former days, and made glad the heart of the owner.

Is not useful knowledge deposited in the mind of the young like these precious jewels? Is not the good teacher like that faithful steward? Is not our Great Teacher and Lord banished from his rightful realm on earth? Will he not come again and seek his own? And shall not the precious jewels which the true teacher quietly and faithfully hid, then be found as beautiful as ever to the joy of their rightful owner? Will that owner then forget to recompense his faithful steward?

THE KIND OF FEMALE TEACHERS WANTED EVERYWHERE.—"We want energetic, self-relying, working, persevering, Christian women, who feel the all-constraining Love of Christ to impel them to effort, and who will not be weary in well-doing."—*Gov. Slade.*

EXTRACTS FROM MRS. SIGOURNEY'S LETTERS.

Make a friend of Memory; for she is to live with us forever.

Among our forest settlements the sacred church-spire springs up, pointing heavenward, and by its side, as an humbler sister, the school beckoneth every little one from its mother's arms.

Learn when to be silent, as well as how to speak. Ulysses was called the most eloquent, and the most silent of men. I would have you talk *well*, but not *always*.

Pleasant looks, affectionate words, obliging deeds, courteous manners,—are they not in the power of us all? These, with the tints of their quiet pencil, make unfading pictures in the gallery of life. Prepare some of these pictures for every one you know and love. Especially place one in the sanctuary of each child's heart with whom you are acquainted.

There is great economy in giving pleasure to children. A trifling gift, a little kindness, goes a great way, and is long remembered.

Thou who hast such need to be taught thyself, art thou a teacher of others?

Lead hither, too, your infants' feet,
And teach them with their sports to blend
Those sacred lessons high and sweet
That make the Sire of Heaven their friend.
So for an unborn race, your zeal
Shall guard this consecrated ground,
And for their bosoms' casket seal
Such gems as here their mothers found.

"HE TAUGHT THEM MANY THINGS."

BY A LADY TEACHER.

1. A ship lay on the bosom
Of the blue, unruffled sea,
When One, retiring from the throng,
Entered it wearily.
Encircling round the sandy beach,
The multitude drew near,
Listening with breathless eagerness,
The Master's words to hear.

2. His voice, unrestingly, had been
Uplifted all the day;
And now the wave of Galilee
Invited Him away;

But with the kindliest sympathies,
That Teacher's heart was rife;
How could He, from the famished crowd,
Withhold the Bread of Life?

3. List, now! He teaches "many things,"
In sweet enchanting strain,—
Of the sower by the way-side,
Who scatters seed in vain,—
Of the single grain of mustard seed,
Which grew a spreading tree,—
And the fisherman who cast his net
Into the teeming sea.

4. Teacher! Behold a quenchless light,
Our faltering steps to guide,—
A model of true excellence
By which our work is tried.
Not greater than our Master is,
Should we the servants be;
It is enough to follow Him
In all humility.

5. Our pupils, are they slow to learn?
Our patience sorely tried,
Perchance; yet His are fools and blind,
And oft His words deride.
Blend wisdom with simplicity,
And justice blend with truth,
Forbearance, meekness, gentleness,
To win the heart of youth.

6. Should pleasure's sea allure the sight,
Tempting us from our way;
Would we in listless ease repose,
Nor duty's call obey;
Then let us think of One who toiled
From morn to twilight dim,
Nor in our teaching "many things,"
Neglect to teach of Him.

THE BEST WAY.—It was the habit of Dr. Arnold, a most honored and successful English teacher, to treat his scholars as gentlemen and reasonable beings; making them respect themselves by the respect he showed them. Lying to the teachers he made a great moral offence, and always placed implicit confidence in a boy's assertion; then if a falsehood was discovered, it was punished severely. There grew up in consequence a general feeling that it was a shame to tell him a lie, as he always believed it.

☞ Leigh Hunt, it is stated, first put into verse the following

BEAUTIFUL PARABLE.

"Abou Ben Adem, (may his tribe increase,)
Awoke one night from a deep dream of peace,
And saw within the moonlight of his room,
Making it rich, and like a lily bloom,
An angel writing in a book of gold.
Exceeding peace had made Ben Adem bold;
And to the presence in the room he said,
'What writest thou?' The vision raised its head,
And with a look made all of sweet accord,
Replied, 'The names of those who love the Lord.'
'And is mine one?' said Abou. 'Nay, not so,'
Replied the angel. Abou spoke more low,
But cheerfully, and said, 'I pray thee, then,
Write mine as one who loves his fellow men.'
The angel wrote — and vanished. The next night
He came again, with a great wakening light,
And showed the names whom love of God had blest,
And, lo! *Ben Adem's name led all the rest!*"

ANCIENT RECORDS.

"In obedience to a warrant from the honored court holden at Charlestown, dated the 30th December, 1679, which court was adjourned till the last Wednesday in March, which is the 31st day, 1680," certain statistics were furnished, at that time, by the towns of Old Middlesex County, among which were those concerning their "schools, both Grammar and English." These last we transcribe from a few of the town reports, hoping they will interest our fellow teachers, as indicating the state of education among our fathers nearly "two hundred years ago." Will not our teachers examine the ancient records, in their places of labor or travel, and gather up facts concerning schools and teachers of former days for publication? It seems to us that such facts have a utility in them. They are the elements of the history of education in our country, which has never yet been soberly and fairly written, while it should be understood first of all as underlying all our other history. Our public schools have ever been New England's boast, distinguishing her history from that of all other lands, the foundation of all her greatness. Let us, schoolmasters, be gathering and preserving the now fragmentary materials, and some of us may some day embody them in some historic volume worthy of the great theme.

Billerica. "As for schools, we have no Grammar schools. Ensign Joseph Tompson is appointed to teach those to write *and to* read that come to him to learn; and several women that *are school*dames."

CAMBRIDGE. "30. 1. 1680. Our Latin schoolmaster is Mr. Elijah Corlitt; his scholars are in number, nine at present.

30. 1. 1680. For English our schooldame is Goodwife Healy; at present but nine scholars.

30. 1. 1680. Edward Hall, English schoolmaster; at present but three scholars."

CHARLESTOWNE. "Schools, one Grammar; Mr. Samuel Phipps keeps it; number of scholars, 53; besides English schools kept by several women."

CHELMSFORD. "That we have no Grammar school, but several schooldames for English, and Mr. John Fiske for writing."

CONCORD. "As for schools, we have in every quarter of our town both men and women that teach to read and write English, when parents can spare their children or others to go unto them. As for Grammar scholars we have none, except some of honored Mr. Peter Bulkley's, and some of reverend Mr. Estbrookes' whom he himself educates."

Resident Editors' Table.

GEORGE ALLEN, Jr., ... *Boston.*
C. J. CAPEN, ... *Dedham.*
} RESIDENT EDITORS. {
ELBRIDGE SMITH, *Cambridge.*
E. S. STEARNS, *W. Newton.*

NORFOLK CO. TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The next meeting of this Association will be held in Quincy on Thursday and Friday, the 22d and 23d of December.

Lectures will be delivered by H. Willey, Esq., Principal of the Braintree High School, Elbridge Smith, Esq., of Cambridge, and Rev. Jeremiah Chaplin, of Dedham.

The following subjects will be discussed, viz.: "The means of keeping pupils occupied during school hours;" and "Mental Arithmetic. D. B. HAGAR, *President.*

INSTITUTE AT NANTUCKET.

At the close of the late meeting of the Institute at Nantucket, the following resolutions were offered, the first five by Mr. Augustus Morse, Principal of the High School in that town, and the latter by Mr. F. N. Blake, Principal of the High School at Edgartown, on which remarks were made by several gentlemen, all referring to the Institute and the generosity and hospitality of our citizens in the highest terms of approbation.

RESOLUTIONS.

The members of the Teachers' Institute, held in Nantucket by the Secretary of the Board of Education of this Commonwealth, on the 2d, 3d, 4th and 5th days of August, 1853, having diligently attended

the several courses of lectures which have been delivered, deem it eminently proper to make the following expression of their sentiments.

Resolved, 1st. That the profoundest thanks of the Teachers assembled here and of the citizens of this town, are due to the distinguished gentleman to whose official instrumentality they are indebted for the extraordinary intellectual advantages and pleasures afforded them during the sessions of the Institute.

Resolved, That while we consider the former Secretary of the Board of Education entitled to the honorable appellation of Author of the improved Common School system of Massachusetts, we regard his successor in office as not less worthy of public confidence and respect.

Resolved, That the exercises of this and similar Institutes are admirably fitted to form in the mind of every attentive listener a perfect ideal of the art of teaching, and that in affording to the Teachers of Common Schools throughout this State the opportunity of hearing the lectures of the accomplished Professors who have addressed us on this occasion, and becoming familiar with their modes of instruction, the Board of Education and their able Secretary are giving the best proof that they have a right conception of their official duties, and are employing the most effective measures for promoting the interests of the great cause committed to their trust.

Resolved, That when the votaries of science, men of genius, learning and renown, come hither from other lands and identify themselves with the cause of popular education in this republic, they add new lustre to their own names, while they help to inspire the Teacher of children and youth with respect for his vocation, and stimulate him to constant improvement, and to increased fidelity in his duties.

Resolved, That yielding to this potent influence, we will strive henceforth to furnish examples of high excellence in the instruction of our own pupils, and by this and all other practicable means endeavor to carry on to perfection that plan of wise and comprehensive benevolence which has for its end the widest diffusion of knowledge and the universal advancement of human happiness.

Resolved, That we most cordially thank the generous, intelligent, and excellent citizens of Nantucket for the hospitable and fraternal spirit in which they have welcomed the members of the present Institute to the entertainments of their homes, and for the courtesy and aid extended to the Faculty of Instruction during all its sessions.

These resolutions were unanimously passed, after which Dr. Sears made some excellent closing remarks, in which he referred to the general interest manifested, and said that he could not feel that he was on an island, but still in the good old Commonwealth of Massachusetts. He spoke of the progress of the present age, attributing it to the general dissemination of knowledge, which is intimately connected with our common school system, now so rapidly improving in every portion of the State.

The Institute then closed its short but interesting session with an appearance of the highest satisfaction, not only among its members, pupils and instructors, but on the part of the citizens present.

INTEREST, DISCOUNT, EQUATION OF PAYMENTS, &c.; WITH NUMEROUS PROBLEMS FOR SOLUTION. BY DANA P. COLBURN.

THIS is the title of an excellent little Hand-book for teachers, and for advanced classes in arithmetic. The beauty of the work consists in its adaptation to the wants and circumstances of business men. It contains, what no work on arithmetic has professed to give, the ready and expeditious methods of computing interest which the best accountants are constantly using; equation of payments and of accounts is presented in such a manner that the youth who studied the subject from this work, may fit himself for enter in the counting room with entire confidence in his ability to meet all questions which may come before him.

Most of our modern arithmetics present a great improvement, in this department, over the old ones; but none of them explain this somewhat intricate subject of equating accounts so satisfactorily, nor offer so good a supply of examples as the work of Mr. Colburn. The remarks in section 10 on computing time, are worthy the especial attention of teachers. We can recommend it in the full confidence that it will give entire satisfaction, knowing, too, that it supplies a great deficiency.

We would present the author's excellent reasons for omitting the answers.

"As a general thing, answers to the problems are not inserted. They are omitted for the following and other reasons.

1. They are unnecessary, since every example admits of rigid proof.
2. They are never given in the problems of real life.
3. A learner should become practically acquainted with those tests which alone he can apply when acting for himself; for then it will be as important for him to be sure of the truth of his results as it will be to obtain them.
4. The proof will often make an operation appear plain and simple which would otherwise have seemed obscure and complicated.
5. The proof often furnishes as valuable an arithmetical exercise as did the original solution.
6. The necessity of verifying his work for himself will lead the pupil to be more careful and accurate in performing it."

It is a work of ninety pages, 8vo, and is published by B. B. Mussey & Co., 29 Cornhill, Boston.

MIDDLESEX IS AWAKE.

THE Teachers of Middlesex County, present at the late annual meeting of the "State Teachers' Association" in Boston, *held on the* 22d of Nov., 1853, in an Ante-Room of the "Lowel *Institute,*" an "Informal Meeting."

Elbridge Smith of the Cambridge High School, was chosen Chairman, and J. W. Hunt of Newton, Secretary.

Whereupon it was moved, by Charles Hammond, Principal of Lawrence Academy, Groton, "That measures be taken for forming a Middlesex County Teachers' Association."

This being seconded, gave rise to an interesting discussion, in which it was settled,

1st. That there is no Teachers' Association now existing in the County, and

2d. That there is great need of such an Association for the mutual benefit of the Teachers, and the furtherance of Education throughout the various towns. Messrs. Hammond of Groton, Smith of Cambridge, Frost of Waltham, Gale of Malden, Hovey of Framingham, Chase of Lowell, Peirce of Waltham, and several others, participated in the discussion. All expressing their warm approval of the proposition, and pledging their hearty co-operation in carrying it out. The motion passed unanimously.

C. C. Chase, of the Lowell High School, moved "That a Committee of *five* be appointed to issue a Circular calling upon the Teachers of Middlesex to assemble in Convention, at some convenient place and time, for the purpose of forming a 'County Association.'"

Pursuant to this motion, Messrs. C. C. Chase, E. Smith, J. W. Hunt, C. Hammond and A. M. Gay, of Charlestown, were appointed.

It was voted that a condensed report of the meeting be furnished for publication in the "Teacher."

The meeting then adjourned to meet at the call of the Committee. J. W. HUNT, *Secretary*.

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